

Calcutta University Commission, 1917-19

REPORT

Volume IV

PART II

Recommendations of the Commission

CHAPTERS XXX—XXXIX



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VIII. The recruitment and position of teachers in intermediate colleges and high English schools—(85) Administrative cleavage between Government schools and colleges on the one hand and private schools and colleges on the other hand should be lessened. (86) Such a process of greater unification depends on changes in the methods of recruiting and paying teachers. (87) The two distinct methods of recruitment now in use. (88) The system of recruitment for Government schools should be more elastic, that for private schools should offer greater security and better prospects. (89) The system of Government service for teachers has brought many benefits to Bengal, has a tenacious hold on the public mind and cannot quickly or suddenly be discarded. But an improved system should replace it. (90—91) Recommendation of new conditions of appointment for teachers in Government schools and intermediate colleges, (92) in aided and unaided schools. (93) Recommendations of a superannuation system open to all teachers in secondary schools and intermediate colleges. (94) Benefits under the proposed superannuation system. (95) Removal of obstacles to promotion and transfer. (96) Suggested future extension of the new system to the administrative posts in education. (97) Advantages of a change which would make the teaching profession in Bengal a unified and organised profession. (98) An illustration of the way in which the new system would work. (99) Need for some teachers who have had special training or experience outside Bengal. (100) How can the aid of such teachers be enlisted? (101) A head quarters corps of western-trained teachers, Indian and European, required. (102) Recommendation that a special corps of teachers should be formed. (103) The work which members of the corps could do. (104) Its members should not be organised on the same lines as those followed in the present service system. (105) A satisfactory organisation of the teaching profession in Bengal depends upon all schools, public and private alike, coming into connexion with a central authority and receiving from it guidance and help without any such interference as would impair legitimate freedom.

Section IX. The aims of secondary education.—(108—109) The liberal education of secondary schools should aim at giving to their pupils. (108) The shortcomings of the great majority of secondary schools in Bengal. (109) The establishment of intermediate colleges would produce a great improvement in the present conditions, (110) would be beneficial to the University; (111) advantageous to the whole community, (112) and would influence for good the entire educational system of the Presidency.

CHAPTER XXXII.—THE INTERMEDIATE COLLEGES.

Section I. The organisation of the colleges—(1) Summary of the reasons for establishing them. (2) They are the pivot of our scheme. (3) Necessity for unified courses. (4) It is impossible to add intermediate classes to all schools. (5) The proposal to combine the two intermediate classes with the two top classes in special institutions: attractive, but impracticable in Bengal. (6) Various means of providing the colleges. (7) Use of selected high schools; (8) reorganisation of second grade colleges, (9) creation of special institutions. How the intermediate classes in first grade colleges should be treated.

Section II. General features of the system—(12) The colleges will serve a double purpose: training some students for university work, others for practical life. (13) These should not be sharply differentiated. (14) In every case a liberal training must be given. (15) Therefore the courses though differentiated should all give access to the University. (16) There should be no distinction between arts and science courses. (17) The methods of teaching to be those of a good school.

Section III. The general liberal element in the courses—(18) There must be a common element in all forms of the course. (19—20) Practical teaching of English. (21) Vernacular. (22) Mathematics need not be compulsory at this stage if a higher matriculation standard is exacted. (23) Courses not to be too rigidly defined. (24) Natural science for arts students. (25) Descriptive elements in an arts course. (26) The treatment of classical languages. (27) Special provision for Mussalmans. (28) The course necessarily wide in its range. (29) Course for science.

Section IV. Preliminary training for medicine and engineering—(30—32) The utility of intermediate courses as a preparation for different kinds of medical courses. (33) Training in preparation for engineering courses.

Section V. Agricultural courses—(34) Need for agricultural training less exacting than a degree course. (35) Outline of such a course.

Section VI. Training of teachers—(36) Why necessary at this stage. (37) Outline of a proposed course. (38) Its relation to university courses in education. (39) Importance of these courses.

Section VII. Commercial training—(42—44) Needed at an earlier stage than the present. (45) Summary of the requirements. (46) Outline of a course. (47) Useful for Government service.

Section VIII. Various types of colleges—(48—49) General requirements of all types of courses; (50) but the colleges should specialise. (51) The examination.

Section IX. Non-academic sides of the intermediate college.—(52) Their importance. Need for playgrounds and physical training. (54) Residential accommodation. (55) These requirements affect cost.

(30) Estimated cost of the scheme. (31) Opportunities for private benevolence. (32) The great advantages of the system. (33) Can only be realised if expenditure is met.

CHAPTER XXXIII.—THE UNIVERSITY OF DACCA.

- The existing schemes for establishing a university at Dacca.*—(1) Introductory. (2—4) Addresses to the Viceroy, January and February 1912. Decision to establish a university at Dacca. (5) Appointment of Dacca University Commission. (6—7) Report and detailed recommendations of Commission. (8) Publication, criticism and postponement, owing to the war, of the Dacca scheme. (9) Debate in Imperial Legislative Council on 7th March 1917 on motion of Sir Syed Nawabul Haque. Decision of Government to submit the scheme to the present Commission; renewed assurances that a university will be founded at Dacca. (10) Government *communiqué* of November 1917 on position of scheme.
- 11. Discussion of the main features of the scheme proposed by the Commission.*—(12) Introductory. (13—16) The establishment of a university at Dacca is in harmony with the general policy of the Commission; special advantages of Dacca as a university centre. (17) Public opinion on this point. (18) The special functions which Dacca should fulfil in stimulating education among the backward Muslim population. (19) The Commission agree with the proposal that the Dacca University should be a unitary (non-affiliating) university, and that it should be teaching and residential, but not that it should be a Government institution. (20) The Commission think that the University should be freed from intermediate teaching; and control directly the whole of the teaching given under it; the 'colleges' to be replaced by 'halls of residence'.
- B. (21—29) Discussion of proposals that Dacca should be a 'residential and affiliating university', on the model of Patna; or, a 'federal university'. Rejection of these proposals. (30—35) Discussion of the proposal that the 'college' should be the teaching unit of the University. Reasons for making the University responsible for all the formal teaching. (36) The college should retain its functions as a residential unit. (37—39) The Commission accept, with some modification, the general policy of the Dacca Committee in regard to residential organisation; students to be allowed to live with parents and approved guardians under strictly defined conditions. (40—43) Discussion of the general principles of a residential system. (44) The intellectual and social side of the system. (45) Non-resident students to share as far as possible the benefits offered to resident students. (46—47) Newman's views on the residential and tutorial elements in a university. The University should give both lectures to large audiences and tutorial training. (48) The Commission agree with the Dacca Committee in regard to the kind of the training to be given by the University, but not in regard to the organisation required. (49—51) Policy of the Dacca Committee in regard to Government control of staff, finance and regulations; general defects of that policy. Difficulties to be faced. (52—59) Question of staff. Advantages and disadvantages of the service system; new system proposed. (60—62) Finance. Proposal of block-grant system, with careful safeguards. (63—65) General question of 'autonomy'. Views of various members.*

Dacca in favour of 'autonomy'. (66) Regulations. Separation of Dacca University legislation into Statutes, Ordinances and Regulations according to the different degrees of public importance of matters. (67) Dacca University to have freedom in managing academic detail, but public interests to be safeguarded

- D (67-68) The University to be open to all. Principle which limits acceptance of benefactions limited to one community. (69) Dacca University. Necessity for limiting the number of undergraduate students in their own interest. If the pressure of undergraduate students is excessive, provision could best be made for them by the foundation of a separate mufassal university
- E (70) General sketch of the University (71) The residential side. (72) The general teaching organisation (73) The general executive and technical organisation (74) Facilities for Muslim students (75-76) Pass, honours, B.A. and M.Sc. courses (77) The Department of Islamic Studies, Department of Sanskrit Studies, English Department (78) Vernacular languages, Urdu, French and German (80) History, economics, sociology, etc (81) Mathematics, geography (82) Necessity for development of science side (83) Law. Admission to the university of persons other than candidates for degrees (85) Development of original investigation. Necessity for adequate library (86-87) Future developments

Section III The teaching organisation of the University —

- A (88-90) Staff (91-96) Departmental organisation (97) Departmental libraries
- B (98-108) Department of Islamic Studies and the reformed madrasah scheme. (109) Department of Sanskrit Studies (110-114) Faculty of Law. (115-122) Question of Faculty of Medicine and of relations of Dacca Medical School with the University (123) Question of Faculty of Agriculture (124-126) Question of Faculty of Engineering and of the Dacca School of Engineering (127-128) Education of women (130-134) Department of education and Training College. Proposed hostel for Training College

Section IV The residential organisation of the University —

- A (135) The 'hall' substituted for the 'college' of the Dacca University Committee (136) its size, to be presided over by a provost (137) The hall to be composed of 'houses', each hall given 11 halls, architectural requirements (138-139) House tutors and assistant tutors, their relations to provosts. (140) Attachment of non resident students to halls and houses (141) Attachment of teachers to halls. Staff committee. Special advisory committee in certain cases. Other committees (142) General estimates for halls, catering, kitchen arrangements (143) Smaller residential units to be called 'houses' and organised on lines similar to halls (144) Halls required at introduction of university
- B (145) The Muslim Hall, will provide wider educational opportunities for Muslim students than the proposed 'Muhammadan College'. The foundation to be accompanied by foundation of intermediate college for Muslim students with suitable hostel accommodation; future provision for Muslim students in Dacca University. Question of Muslim hall, and of 'mixed' houses (147) Relations of Muslim Hall to Department of Islamic Studies

Section VI. The Dacca Hall. (149) To meet necessary needs of students for whom the Dacca Committee proposed a college, for the way to do so, and how provision might be made in Dhara Hall and other halls; no discussion in teaching arrangements to be made for such students, and that of access must be made to be met by hostel charges.

Section VII. The Jagannath Hall; discussion of difficulties arising out of present situation and possible solutions. (155) Question of Jagannath Hall as a hall for poor students. The fee for halls should be identical; further provision of stipends for poor students. (156) Question of erection of Jagannath Hall on Ramna site. (157) Representation of Jagannath trustees on advisory committee for Jagannath Hall. Question of existing staff of Jagannath College. (158) Hostel for special classes including Namasudras. (159) Hostel accommodation for European and Anglo-Indian students.

(160—166) Private halls and hostels. Missionary hostels

The administration of the University.—(167) Introductory. (168) Authorities of the University. (169) The Visitor. (170) The Chancellor. (171—174) The Vice-Chancellor. (175) The Treasurer. (176) The Registrar. (177) The Proctor and the University Steward. (178) The Librarian. (179) Distribution of functions among various university bodies. (180—184) The Court. (185) The first register of graduates and electoral roll of the Court. (186—187) Admission to the electoral roll; fees; co-operation of graduates in the work of the University. (188—189) The Executive Council. (190—191) The Academic Council. (192) The Faculties. (193) The Boards of Studies. (194) Other Boards and Committees. (195) The Muslim Advisory Board. (196) The Residence, Health and Discipline Board. (197) The Examinations Board. (198) The Finance Committee, Buildings and Estate Committee, Appointments Committee or Board, Library Committee. Power of appointment of persons other than members of Councils on committees of the Councils.

Section VIII. The scholarship system.—(199) Scholarships, research-studentships, free studentships, stipends. Provision for Muslim students.

Section IX. Discipline, social life and physical training.—(200—203) Discipline. (204—205) Social life and games. (206) Physical training.

Section X. Entrance qualification for admission to the University.—(207—210) Entrance qualification. Transitional measures.

Section XI. Transitional arrangements.—(211) Intermediate teaching. (212) Establishment of Muslim intermediate college, and (213) one or more other intermediate colleges; and of intermediate education to follow on the final examination of the senior madrasahs. (214) Admission to University. (215) Privileges of students at present reading for Calcutta degrees. (216) First appointments to the teaching staff. (217) Constitution of the first university bodies.

Section XII. Limits of university jurisdiction. Relations of Dacca with other universities. Dacca Educational Joint Committee. (218) General question of relations of Dacca University with secondary schools and intermediate colleges. (219) Question of limits within which institutions connected with the University of Dacca should be placed. (220—221) Question of exclusive privileges of Dacca University within such area. University legislation should not be so framed as to exclude possibilities of inter-university co-operation and migration from one university to another especially for post-graduate studies. (222) Dacca University should be protected by Statutes from any unfair competition in the market, but it is restricted, but the University Act should not create

all possibility of creating within that area an institution of higher education connected with Dacca University. (223) Discussion of Mr. ... suggestion that students within a given area should be debarred for a certain period from attending any university other than Dacca. Advantages to students of mixing with students from other provinces. (224) General Dacca Educational Joint Committee.

Section XI. Land, buildings, etc.—(225) Proposed transfer of buildings to the University or to trustees on its behalf. (226) Question of maintenance of university buildings and estate. (227) Question of relations with municipal administration. (228) Allocation of existing buildings on the Ramna.

Section XII. Finance.—(229) The capital cost of intermediate colleges in Dacca should be in part paid for out of the capital fund allotted to the University. The Commission believe that the changes of organisation proposed will result in possible some savings on the cost of Dacca University as contemplated under the scheme of the Dacca University Committee. Outline of estimates.

Section XIII. Conclusion.—(230) The future of Dacca University. (231) The Commission urge that the University should be founded without further delay. (232) Indebtedness of the Commission to the report of the Dacca University Committee and other official documents, and to officials of Dacca and Jagannath Colleges.

CHAPTER XXXIV.—A TEACHING UNIVERSITY IN CALCUTTA.

Section I. The need for reorganisation.—(1) The chapter to be confined to the teaching of men in the Faculties of Arts and Science. (2—3) The materials for reconstruction of the colleges and the university teaching system. (4—5) The post-graduate classes of the University; drawbacks of the system. (6) Effects of proposed removal of intermediate students. Estimates of numbers to be dealt with. (7) This may suggest the desirability of delay.

Section II. Some projects of reform.—(8) Many schemes put forward. (9—11) Proposals involving no fundamental change. (12) Proposal that Presidency College should become the centre of a State university. (13—16) Criticism of the proposal. (17) Proposal that the University should undertake all honours work and incorporate Presidency College. (18—20) Criticism of the proposal. (21—22) The impracticability of a unitary university in Calcutta. (23) Both the schemes discussed have elements of value.

Section III. A new synthesis required.—(24) The history and circumstances of Calcutta require a new type of university. (25) It must be a university of colleges. (26—27) The conditions necessary for success. (28) The nature of the relations between the University and the colleges must depend upon the kind of training to be given.

Section IV. The duration of the degree course.—(29) The present system. (30) A three-years' course for the B.A. or B.Sc. after the intermediate stage is desirable. (31) It should be introduced first for honours students. (32) The B.A. and M.Sc. courses should be changed for honours students, and (33) for the graduates. (34) Summary of proposals.

Section V. Differentiation of courses of study.—(35) Separate honours courses necessary (36) though not necessarily entirely distinct. (37—39) The lines of distinction between honours and pass courses. (40) Selection of students for honours courses, and (41) transfer from pass to honours. (42) Reorganisation of

pass courses in groups; (43) one of which should include education. (44—46) The treatment of English. (47) Summary of proposals.

Section VI. Methods of instruction.—(48—50) Lectures, and the conditions under which they can be most profitably employed. (51) A complete departure from the present system necessary. (52) The respective functions of the University and the colleges in a revised system of teaching. (53—54) Need for organised tutorial guidance. (55) A description of tutorial work at its best. (56—57) It is in accord with Indian tradition and is greatly needed. (58—59) This is mainly the work of colleges. It demands able men, and the best lecturers should take part in it. (60—61) Proposed recast of conditions of lecture-attendance. (62) Importance of the part played by the colleges in this scheme. (63) The change must be gradual. (64) All students should be members of colleges, (65) except in some cases M.A. and M.Sc. students. (66) Summary of proposals.

Section VII. Advanced study and investigation.—(67—68) The importance of original investigation. (69—70) Dangers of a mechanical conception of 'research.' (71—72) Research necessary at every point, and every student should be in some sense a researcher. (73) Distinction between two types of teaching, one aiming at understanding, the other at dexterity. (74—75) In the former case the spirit of research indispensable. (76—78) Necessity of organised research in order to keep teaching alive.

Section VIII. The academic governance of the University.—(79) An anticipatory survey for the sake of clearness. (80) The Court and the Executive Council. (81) The necessity of an organisation of teachers. (82) Academic Council, etc. (83) To include representatives both of colleges and of university teachers. (84—85) The Vice-Chancellor

Section IX. The functions of the University.—(86) Introductory. (87) University buildings. (88) University library, and (89) laboratories. (90—92) Teaching in subjects not dealt with by colleges, and (93) supplementary teaching in college subjects. (94) Organisation of co-operative teaching. (95) Financial arrangements. (96) Modification of existing functions. (97) Definition of curricula. (98) Methods of examination. (99—100) Inspection and supervision of colleges.

Section X. The teaching staff of the University.—(101—102) Need for definition of teaching grades. (103—104) University professors; (105) readers; (106) categories of teachers; (107) wholly paid by the University; (108) partly paid by the University, partly by a college; (109) wholly paid by a college. (110—111) Recognition of college teachers.

Section XI. Methods of appointment.—(112) Importance of care in university appointments. (113) The special difficulties of India. (114) Proposed special procedure in appointments, (115) (a) for pure university posts, (116—120) (b) for posts partly or wholly paid by colleges.

Section XII. The requirements of constituent colleges.—(121) Constituent colleges in a teaching university require very different conditions from colleges in an affiliating university. (122—123) Treatment of intermediate students. (124) Size of colleges: maximum of 1,000 recommended. (125) Proportion of teachers to students. (126—127) Qualifications of teachers. (128) Distribution of teachers among subjects. (129) Conditions of tenure and salary of teachers. (130) Equipment and accommodation. (131) Residence of students. (132) Government of colleges. (133) Help needed to enable colleges to meet these needs. (134) Privileges of constituent colleges. (135) College autonomy in moral and religious matters, and (136) in the disciplinary control of students.

139) Conflicts of jurisdiction : proposed Committee of Discipline. (140) Applications of colleges for aid from public bodies.

Section XIII. Temporarily affiliated colleges.—(141) Some colleges cannot at once meet the conditions laid down. (142) Provision necessary for them, if the new system is introduced at once, but it should not be of such a kind as to compromise the system. (143) Temporary affiliation proposed, (144) on new conditions. (145) Courses of study in these colleges. (146) Position of teachers in such colleges, and (147) of students; (148) control and supervision of these colleges. (149) Why this mode of dealing with them has been chosen. (150—151) They must have an opportunity of improving.

Section XIV. Presidency College.—(152) Unique position of Presidency College. (153) Its resources ought to be made more generally available. (154—156) Proposals that the college should be incorporated in the University discussed and rejected. (157) The college must be more, not less, autonomous. (158—160) Proposed reconstitution of the college. (161—164) Effect of these proposals upon the service system of recruitment and suggested changes in this system. (165) Advantages of these proposals. (167—168) Proposed 'Presidency Chairs' in the University. (169) To be filled by a special mode of appointment in England.

Section XV. The need for new colleges.—(170) The existing colleges insufficient. (171) New colleges necessary in Calcutta. (172) Small colleges with residential accommodation best. (173) But they ought to be near College Square : residences, etc. might be suburban. (174—175) Need of a Muslim college. (176) Its proposed method of organisation. (177) An orthodox Hindu college also suggested.

Section XVI. The carrying out of the change.—(178) Greatness of the changes proposed : they cannot be effected by mere enactment. (179) Appointment of an Executive Commission recommended, if it is decided to bring the new system into operation at once. (180) But there is much to be said in favour of delaying legislative action until the intermediate colleges have been established.

CHAPTER XXXV.—THE MUFASSAL COLLEGES.

Section I. Effects of our general plan of reform upon mufassal colleges.—(1) Our proposals may arouse misgivings in mufassal colleges. (2) Hitherto the attraction of Calcutta has been partly checked by the uniformity of the affiliating system. (3) But new standards of value will bring about a change. (4) It would be disastrous if the mufassal centres were deserted owing to the attractions of Calcutta and Dacca. (5—6) To avert this, there must be reorganisation in the mufassal also. (7—9) Effects of the proposed 'intermediate' policy on mufassal colleges. (10—12) Probable future development of mufassal colleges.

Section II. Survey of the problem.—(13) Views of our correspondents on the desirability of establishing further universities in Bengal. (14—15) Opinions adverse to such a development discussed. (16) Proposals for the establishment of universities : 29 places mentioned. (17) It is impossible (apart from Dacca) to fix with certainty upon any place which ought to develop into a university. (18—22) Discussion of the desirability of providing means for determining such places.

Section III. Proposal to establish a University of Bengal.—(23) Reasons for the proposal. (24) Various forms of the scheme. (25) The proposal to create a University of Bengal, (26—28) which would place obstacles in the way of healthy

development, (29) is repudiated by the mufassal colleges themselves. (30) Concentration of resources for university training in selected centres is necessary. (31—32) A special organisation to carry out the programme. Our proposal for a Board of Mufassal Colleges, (33) as a temporary measure leading up to and preparing a better and more satisfactory solution.

Section IV. A Mufassal Board attached to the University of Calcutta.—(34) Suggestion that colleges in Eastern Bengal should be affiliated to Dacca discarded. (35) All mufassal colleges should be attached to Calcutta, but in such a way as not to hamper the Teaching University. (36) A board representative of all mufassal colleges proposed. (37) It should not meet often. (38—41) How far uniformity of courses and examinations is desirable.

Section V. Control and regulation of mufassal colleges.—(42) The Executive Council to determine questions of recognition or affiliation. (43) Conditions of affiliation and inspection of colleges. (44) Financial proposals.

Section VI. University colleges or potential universities.—(45) Importance of finding means of selecting them. (46—47) Conditions for recognition of university colleges. (48) A special panel of the Mufassal Board to be established for university colleges. (49—51) The effect of these provisions is to give to potential universities a growing degree of academic autonomy.

Section VII. Burma.—(52) Inconvenience of the present arrangement: a University of Burma needed. (53) Analogy between the conditions in Rangoon and those in Dacca. (54) If the foundation of the University is delayed, our proposals may provide a useful transition.

Section VIII. Assam.—(55—56) The university problem in Assam. (57—58) The contrast between Gauhati and Sylhet. (59) Gauhati ought ultimately to be the seat of a university. (60—61) But it is not yet ready for it, and needs a transitional stage.

CHAPTER XXXVI.—THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

Section I. Introductory.—(1) Advance dependent upon public opinion. Views of His Excellency the Viceroy. (2) Special modes of treatment needed. (3) The two needs—*zanana* women and professional women.

*Section II. The education of *zanana* women.*—(4) Need for a new type of secondary school for this purpose, and (5) a special body to advise the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education regarding it, and (6) a special type of examination. (7) Large expenditure required. (8) Also an adequate staff of teachers. (9) For this reason the education of *zanana* women is dependent upon the education of professional women.

Section III. Non-purchase education.—(10) Schools and colleges of the existing type required but changes are necessary. (11) Variations from the school course provided for boys desirable. (12) Intermediate education for girls should continue to be carried on in conjunction with degree work: reasons for this. (13) Need for training in teaching at the intermediate stage; (14) also for preliminary scientific training leading to the medical profession. (15) Need of co-operation among the women's colleges, and (16) of variations in the degree course for women. (17) Therefore a university Board of Women's Education is proposed. (18) Need for an expansion of professional training for women. (19) Every possible method of producing trained teachers should be simultaneously employed. (20) Training of teachers who do not go to college.

(21) Women teachers to conduct this training must be imported. (22) The difficulties of medical training for women. (23) Proposed changes.
Section IV. Conclusion.—(24) No scheme of reform will lead to any good results unless it is supported by public opinion.

CHAPTER XXXVII.—THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALCUTTA.

Section I. Preliminary survey.—(1) The deficiencies of the existing system (2) make it especially unsuited to the needs of the proposed reconstruction. (3) Requirements of the new system. (4) A complete departure from the existing organisation proposed. (5) New relations with Government. (6) A large Court with a Committee of Reference. (7) A small Executive Council. (8) An Academic Council with Faculties and Boards of Studies. (9) A Mufassal Board. (10) A Board of Women's Education and other Boards and Standing Committees. (11) The Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education and provisional arrangements.

Section II. University legislation.—(12) Undue rigidity of the present system; (13) Four grades of legislation proposed. (14) (i) The Act of the Legislature; (15) (ii) Statutes; (16) (iii) Ordinances; (17) (iv) Regulations.

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Section IV. The Officers of the University.—Introductory. (20) The Chancellor; (21) The Vice-Chancellor; (22) The Treasurer; (23) The Registrar; (24) The Superintendent of Examinations; (25) The Librarian.

Section V. The Court of the University.—(26) Ought to be widely representative, and should include (27) (A) *ex-officio* members; (28) (B) members in their own right; (29) (C) representative non-academic members; (30) (D) academic representatives; (31) (E) nominated members. (32—36) Functions of the Court. (37) A Committee of Reference. (38) Value of the Court.

Section VI. The Executive Council.—(39) A small administrative body needed; (40) primarily for financial purposes; (41) and for the direction of policy. (42) Constitution of the Executive Council. (43) A smaller Executive Commission proposed for the period of reconstruction. (44) The Chairmanship of the Executive Council. (45) Its legislative powers. (46) Qualifications of its financial powers. (47) Appointments.

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CHAPTER XXXVIII.—THE SITE OF THE UNIVERSITY.

Section I. The proposal to remove the University.—(1) The difficulty of Calcutta in some degree common to all city universities. (2) Difficulty of finding an adequate suburban site. (3) The proposal affected by our recommendations. (4) Withdrawal of intermediate students. (5) Other proposals may help to ease the situation, (6) as also the University of Dacca. (7) On the other hand our proposals would in some ways increase the difficulty. (8) The system of inter-collegiate work requires concentration of colleges. (9) Removal might help this. (10) The advantage of health is not all on the side of a suburban site. (11—12) Removal would cut off the University from the city, which would be unfortunate in several respects. (13) It is improbable that all colleges would consent to removal. (14) Many students now living at home would be unable to attend; and new colleges would arise for them, reproducing the existing situation. (15—16) On the whole, a complete removal impracticable.

Section II. Proposals for the future.—(17) Need for systematic consideration of site problems for educational institutions. (18) Sites for intermediate colleges and schools. (19) College Square should continue to be the centre of university teaching and administration. (20) Residential accommodation should be arranged for in suburban sites. (21) Summary of recommendations.

CHAPTER XXXIX.—IMPROVED CONDITIONS OF STUDENT LIFE.

Section I. Urgency of the problem: principles upon which a solution should be based.—

(1) Drastic reform of the conditions of student life is essential especially in Calcutta, (2) but the establishment of intermediate colleges should reduce the congestion in Calcutta. (3—5) General principles of future policy.

Section II. Provision of residences for students in Calcutta.—(6) Much money will be required, (7—9) but it is impossible to give estimates. (10) The collegiate hostel is the best form of residence, (11—12) but new hostels (collegiate and non-collegiate) should preferably be built in the suburbs. (13—15) Collegiate messes, provided that the houses can be engaged on long leases, should also be utilised. (16—17) The Executive Council of the University should frame general regulations, assist the colleges in acquiring houses and in supervising

building plans, and submit estimates to Government in accordance with a well-considered plan of development. (18) The University Institute might serve as a central club-house for those students residing in the suburbs.

Section III. Provision of students' residences in the mufassal.—(19—21) The problem of the mufassal is mainly the provision of hostels. (22) The prevalence of malaria, and (23) the availability of suitable sites in the several centres, (24—27) should be taken into account by a special committee of the Board of Mufassal Colleges and by the Executive Council.

Section IV. Superintendence and internal organisation of hostels and attached messes in Calcutta and in the mufassal.—(28—31) The provision of common-rooms, libraries, sick rooms and prayer rooms. (32) The purchase of stores by co-operative societies. (33—35) The supervision of students' residence should be easier under the new conditions proposed.

Section V. Health of students. Proposed University Board of Students' Welfare.—(36—37) The Board of Students' Welfare : (38) its composition, and (39—44) functions.

Section VI. The development of corporate life.—(45—47) The encouragement of corporate life in the colleges, (48) the authorities of which should have complete freedom in all matters of moral and religious instruction. (49—50) Structural alterations in the college buildings, (51) the provision of residences for the teachers, (52—53) and continuity of service are essential. (54) The University Corps. (55) Need for fostering loyalty to the University.

Section VII. Other factors in the problem.—(56—58) The poverty of many of the students, (59—61) the narrow choice of careers, and (62) the fermentation of new political and social ideals are causes of the present unrest. (63) The need for patience and hopefulness : the opinions of Mr. Gokhale. (64—66) The success of any system of education therefore depends largely upon the conditions which are themselves remote from education.

PART II

Recommen-
dations of
—the—
Commission .

CHAPTER XXX.

THE NEED FOR A NEW DEPARTURE.

I.

1. We have now completed our review of the present state of higher education in Bengal and of the social conditions which affect its welfare. In the preceding chapters, we have sketched in outline the development of the western system of education from its beginnings in this Presidency a little more than one hundred years ago ; the swiftly extending influence of the new ideas which it conveyed ; their disintegrating impact upon many ancient traditions and customary ways of life ; the stimulus which those new ideas have given, the tension which they have caused ; the political and economic situation, in some respects full of encouragement, in others of menace, to which they have led. We have seen what part has been taken by Government, what by private effort, in the furtherance of this educational revolution ; the temperament, the aptitudes and the needs of the young people who are affected by it ; the growing pressure of the demand for the new opportunities which it offers--a demand which, first springing from the Hindu educated classes, has in recent years proceeded with no less intensity from the Musalmans and is now beginning to show itself even among the more backward classes of the community. We have described, as the most powerful single factor in this momentous change, the rise of the University of Calcutta from its foundation in 1857 ; the part which it has borne in the diffusion of western culture, and recently in the encouragement of oriental learning ; its still slender connexion with the educational system of the domiciled community ; the activities in which it and its affiliated colleges are now engaged and the defects inherent in the method of instruction usually employed ; the relations of the University to secondary education both for boys and girls ; the problems which confront it in providing higher education for women ; the faulty conditions of its student life, especially in Calcutta ; its system of examinations and their overshadowing importance ; its provision of professional training for the lawyer, the medical man and the

engineer ; its plans for providing courses of instruction in agriculture, technology and commerce, and the bearing of those plans upon what has already been attempted in these branches of education. We have also described the constitution of the University and its administrative organisation ; its connexions with the Governments of India and Bengal ; the efforts which it has made in recent years to avail itself of the services of scholars coming from other parts of India and from Europe ; its relations with other sister universities in India and overseas.

2. But our attention has not been confined to the University of Calcutta. Bengal having been promised a second university, we have borne in mind the effect which the establishment of the University of Dacca must have upon the existing conditions of higher education. And, though we have deferred our discussion of the plans proposed for the new University to the second part of our report, we have kept in view the influence exerted upon educational thought in the Presidency by the Dacca University Committee's report published in 1912 and by new developments of university work in other parts of India, especially at Benares, in Bihar and Orissa, and in Mysore.

3. Furthermore- to complete this survey of the contents of the preceding chapters—we have given an account of the present situation of the traditional systems of oriental studies in Bengal and have endeavoured to find new points of contact between them and the University. We have also reviewed and discussed the present practice as regards the medium of instruction and examination ; and have mapped out the main currents of opinion as to the respective claims of the mother tongue and of English to predominance in the successive stages of secondary and higher education under existing conditions in Bengal.

4. The first part of our report is based upon what we ourselves have seen in the different parts of the Presidency, upon the oral and statistical evidence which we have received, and upon the written replies given in answer to our *questionnaire*.¹ For these replies we are indebted to more than four hundred correspondents, most of whom write with intimate knowledge of the social conditions prevailing in the Presidency and of the way in which its educational system actually works. What they have written dis-

¹ See Chapter I.

closes the service which the schools and colleges have rendered to the country, the new opportunities now opening before education in Bengal, the grave defects which impede its progress, and the dangers which threaten its future welfare. We desire to express our obligation to our witnesses and correspondents, and especially to those who have furnished us with a written expression of their views. In the careful study which we have given to these documents, we have been impressed by the individuality and personal reflection which distinguish a large proportion of them, and by the candour with which the writers, while deeply convinced of benefits which education has brought to Bengal and of the importance of extending its influence, criticise its present shortcomings and defects. We hope that what our correspondents have written may prove to be the beginning of a new movement of educational opinion in the Presidency. Their replies record the thought and feeling of the educated classes in the community upon a question of supreme importance at a turning point in the history of India and of the Empire.

II.

5. The most striking feature of the situation is the eager demand for secondary and college education, in which English is the medium of instruction. Bengal has always shown a strong predisposition towards western learning. The volume and intensity of the present demand are however beyond precedent. The number of students enrolled in the 'arts' colleges in Bengal increased from 10,980 in 1912 to 18,478 in 1917. This is an increase of 68 *per cent.* Within the same short time, the number of pupils in the English secondary schools increased by more than 40 *per cent.* Nearly 400,000 students were receiving English secondary and college education in 1917 as compared with 278,000 in 1912. There is no parallel to these numbers in any other part of India.

*6. It is clear that a powerful movement finds expression in this demand for secondary and college education. Four causes have produced it. The first is the economic pressure which is straitening, in some cases to the point of penury, the already narrow means of many families belonging to the respectable classes in Bengal. Prices are rising. A higher standard of personal expenditure becomes almost inevitable, especially in Calcutta and, through the influence of life in Calcutta, elsewhere. Thus a considerable sec-

tion of the community, and one which by reason of its intelligence is influential out of proportion to its numbers, is impelled by increasing claims upon the family income to seek for all its sons the education which alone gives access to the callings regarded as suitable for their choice. The sacrifices made by these families and by the boys themselves in order to get education are severe and silently borne. Higher education in Bengal is being bought at the price of self-denial and, in many cases, of actual hunger. To the members of the respectable classes English high schools are a social necessity. They are desperately anxious that their boys should be able to get at the lowest possible cost the kind of education which will help them to livelihood in a career consonant with their sense of dignity and with what are felt to be the claims of their social position.

7. The second cause which has led to the increased demand for secondary and higher education is the awakening of new ambitions in ranks of society which formerly lay outside its range. The social recognition to which a graduate is entitled is naturally prized by many whose rising prosperity enables them to look higher than their earlier circumstances allowed. Agriculturists, in thinking of their sons' future, look beyond the horizon of village life. The difficulty of finding remunerative employment on the land for all the young men of a large family makes their fathers wish to put them into other callings, access to which is through the English secondary schools. This stream of new comers from the country districts swells the numbers in the existing high schools, floods some of them beyond their capacity and creates a demand for new accommodation. Nor does the flood seem to have reached its height. Other tributary streams increase the demand for schools. From classes in the Hindu community which are still illiterate, clever boys are making their way upwards into higher education. There are few signs at present of any desire to break loose from the too bookish curriculum. There is little disposition to adventure upon new and unfamiliar careers. But though not yet on the American scale, the movement towards the high schools in Bengal shows something of the American faith in the social value of educational opportunity.

8. The third cause which has stimulated the desire for secondary education in Bengal is hardly less powerful. It is the feeling, however inarticulate and undefined, that economic and social

changes are near at hand. There is an instinct that India will become a more industrial country, that new kinds of employment will be opening, and that it will be to a young man's advantage to have had a good education. In what way or to what extent these anticipations may be realised, no one is able to predict; but the general impression that such changes are possible has in itself an effect. In other countries such a stir of new educational ambitions has always been a sign that the old order of social ideas is shaken, that fresh and unaccustomed forces are coming into play, and that some great re-adjustment of economic conditions is not remote. We cannot point to any educational movement upon the scale of that now visible in Bengal which has not been the overture to a period of social tension and of far-reaching change.

9. A fourth cause has furthered the growth of secondary and college education during recent years. Thoughtful Indian opinion frets under the stigma of illiteracy which, in spite of the high attainments of a relatively small minority, the country has still to bear. Every advance which India makes towards a place of direct influence in the affairs of the Empire throws into sharper relief the ignorance under which the masses of her people labour. The educated classes are sensitive to this blot upon the good name of their country and feel that it lowers the prestige of India in the eyes of the world. They approve therefore of any extension of education, believing that an increase in the numbers of any kind of school will directly or indirectly lessen the mass of ignorance which is the heaviest drag upon the progress of India. On a narrow view of their own interests the educated classes might demur to making higher education accessible to scores of thousands of new aspirants to careers which are limited in number and already overcrowded. It is well understood that one result of the growth of new high schools will be to intensify the competition for a restricted number of posts and therefore to prevent salaries from rising. But any disposition to limit educational opportunities on this account is overborne by a conviction that the country needs more education, and by a faith that the liberal encouragement of new schools will in the long run prove the wisest policy. Such encouragement is believed to be in the interests even of those who already enjoy access to the kind of education which, if it were limited to them, would have an enhanced pecuniary value. Much of the zeal for

secondary education springs from non-self-regarding motives and works against what might appear to be self-interest. It is this belief in education for its own sake, a belief which—though often vague and indiscriminating, is ardent and sincere—that gives its chief significance to the movement now spreading in Bengal.

10. But the forces which are driving forward this new movement of opinion will not by themselves raise the level of excellence in education. On the contrary, unless they be supported by financial assistance and directed wisely to well-chosen ends, they will bring about a collapse in an old system which was designed for more limited numbers and for the needs of earlier days. The existing mechanism is overstrained by the unexpected pressure of new demands. Year by year it is less able to cope with them. At present, nearly every one who goes to school or college gets something short of what he really needs. In many cases the sons of the older educated families are receiving an education of a quality inferior (at any rate inferior in proportion to present necessities) to that which their fathers enjoyed. The new-comers are not getting the kind of education which they require but a diluted share of something designed for other conditions and defective in its adjustment to existing needs.

11. If rightly directed, however, the forces which are at work in the new movement are powerful enough to transform education in Bengal and to make every school and college better than it has ever been. But the energy which the new movement supplies needs to be concentrated at the right points if it is to lift the heavy mass of the present system to a higher level. It can only be so concentrated by a representative (we do not mean by this a directly elected) central authority commanding the confidence and support of public opinion. The energy which has to be collected and applied shows itself for the most part in private aspirations and in family aims. Family opinion therefore and individual minds will have to be convinced that the new plan is better than the old plan. Nothing can be done unless the new arrangement is plainly better than what now exists and is more likely to satisfy personal needs. It must give more, and give it more profusely. At the same time, what it gives must be of far better quality and more closely adapted to the different grades of capacity found among those who receive it. It must be liberal in aim, and yet must serve practical purposes. It must be so widespread that no one is shut out, and

yet be selective in the sense of giving to each individual the training which will meet his needs. It must have public authority behind it, and yet must allow scope for private initiative and have regard to diversity of local needs. Yet, even if all this can be done, many will oppose change, through not realising the gravity of the situation or through being wedded to the established order of things. To overcome this inertia a concentration of the available energy will be required. A wave of public opinion, supporting the action of a new representative central authority, can alone raise the present system to a new level of usefulness and open out new educational opportunities.

12. We sympathise very strongly with the view that one of the greatest needs of India is more education, widely spread throughout the community. At the base of the system should be well-staffed primary schools, bringing a new stimulus to the mass of the population by means of a training liberal in spirit and yet adapted to the conditions under which the vast majority of the pupils must afterwards seek a livelihood. In order that every child of special promise may enjoy further opportunity, the primary schools should be linked up to secondary education in its various grades. The teaching in the secondary schools should be carefully adapted to the requirements of different types of ability; emphasising the value of an all-round development of physique, mind and character and not forgetful of the practical needs of modern life. The system should be crowned by universities, professional schools and technological institutions, popular in their sympathies, exacting in their standards, many-sided in their courses of study, staffed by able teachers, and accessible to all who may have shown themselves competent to profit by advantages necessarily costly to the State. We share the opinion that, just as the main economic purpose of the co-operative movement is to democratise credit, a chief aim of the educational institutions of India should be to democratise knowledge.¹ But in order to meet the needs of the whole people, education must be organised with infinite care; it must be developed by patient experiment, by public and private expenditure on a generous scale, and with rigorous regard for excellence in quality; it must be adjusted and continually

¹ See article by Mr. Lalubhai Samaldas 'on Problems of Reconstruction' in *The Social Service Quarterly* (Bombay), July 1918.

readjusted to the manifold needs of different individuals, and to the needs of the community for the service of which the individual is trained. Thirty years ago, when the Commissioners on Technical Instruction went from England to various parts of Europe in order to learn what was being done to strengthen the economic position of different countries by means of education, a Swiss gentleman said to them: "We know that the mass of our people must be poor; we are determined that they shall not also be ignorant." By waging war against ignorance, the Swiss have alleviated poverty as well. But they have succeeded in doing so only by thinking out at each stage what education should aim at, what kind of teaching it should provide, and how it may combine training for livelihood with training for life. And the fundamental need which the Swiss have set themselves to meet is the need for teachers trained for this profession and inspired by public and patriotic aims.

13. But, as things are, the most serious weakness in the educational system of Bengal is the dearth of teachers competent to give the training which, in order to meet the needs of the community, the schools and colleges should provide. As compared with many other countries, Bengal is very weakly furnished with the *personnel* indispensable to educational success. Until this defect is remedied, the hope of achieving a great advance must be foiled. There are two reasons for the weakness. First, social conditions deprive Bengal, at present almost entirely, of the services of women teachers, who, in other lands touched by like aspirations, form the great majority of the teaching staffs in primary education and are employed in rapidly growing numbers in secondary schools. Secondly, so poor are the salaries and prospects offered to teachers and so doubtful is the status of the teaching profession as a whole, that the calling fails to attract the necessary number of recruits possessing the ability and training which are required for the work of public education. In Bengal the widespread faith in education is in violent contrast to the disregard of the instrument by which alone education can achieve its aims.

14. At present all the young men who have been trained at high schools and colleges seem to find posts of one kind or another. It is true that increasing competition keeps salaries low. Relatively to the higher cost of living, incomes actually decline. It is often the practice to wait a long time for a settled appointment of the

kind which the applicant thinks is worth his while to accept. But, apart from congestion in the legal profession, we have found few signs of actual unemployment among the young men of the educated classes. No prominence is given to unemployment in the answers to our *questionnaire*. The matter was not mentioned to us in oral evidence during our visits to different parts of Bengal. The output of higher education is still absorbed by the Government service, by the professions and by the commercial firms, though the rates of payment are often meagre and there is a general complaint that the economic position of the educated classes as a whole is increasingly painful and discouraging. Nevertheless we cannot but fear that, unless there are great developments of industry and commerce in Bengal, and unless the educational system is adapted to the new requirements, the supply of young men trained by the high schools and colleges will be found at no distant time to have overshot the demand. This fear is shared by many observers, Indian and European alike. In spite of this anxiety, however, there is a strong feeling that, so far from being kept stationary or from being curtailed, opportunities of secondary and higher education should be more widely diffused.

15. Thus, year by year the high schools and colleges send out into the world young men in numbers so great and so rapidly growing that the prospects in the callings which they choose are already impaired and are likely to become seriously worse. At the same time a great calling, indispensable to the community and not in itself derogatory to the dignity of the most highly educated men, is in urgent need of the services which well-educated men alone can render. The belief that education can give new life to Bengal grows apace. With the help of a large body of able and vigorous teachers it could meet all the hopes which are reposed in it. But these teachers are not yet forthcoming. The prospects afforded by the teaching profession are insufficiently attractive. Yet there is a multitude of promising young men who would be glad to find a calling adequately remunerated and capable of satisfying the ambitions of those of them who desire to serve their country and their generation. Is it possible to bring these two needs together, and thus at one and the same time to furnish Bengal with the instrument which will realise its educational hopes and to open out for young and well-educated men attractive opportunities in a profes-

sion from which they now turn aside? We conceive that this might be done, but only by drastic improvements in the present system.

III.

16. Such is the general situation disclosed in the earlier chapters of this report. We shall now recapitulate the most conspicuous defects in the existing educational system before proceeding to make detailed recommendations for its reform.

17. In the first place, the colleges have to deal with large numbers of students insufficiently prepared for the methods and standards of university work. A considerable proportion of the candidates who pass the matriculation and enter college are not ready for university teaching. In order to take advantage of what the University can offer, they should have a more thorough command of English, should possess a wider range of general knowledge, and should be maturer in character and judgment. The intermediate classes do not rightly belong to the university stage. They are preparatory to it, and in a more fully organised system would find their place in the sphere of higher secondary education.

18. The remedy will be found in a thorough-going reform of secondary and higher education in Bengal. Our evidence shows that this is the most urgent need. The schools should have a wider curriculum, a larger proportion of trained teachers and improved equipment. Many parents who are making bitter sacrifices in order to give a high school education to their sons get a very poor return for their self-denial. The schools specialise in preparing boys for the university matriculation. It is easy to excuse them when we remember what public opinion insists upon their doing, and how careful most of them have to be in keeping public opinion their friend. But the college authorities find no reason to be satisfied with the average result. On the contrary they say that the intake from the schools is of such poor quality that little can be made of it without a long preliminary drill. It is not that the material is bad but that it has been mishandled in the schools. This in itself would be serious enough, but the mischief does not stop here. The high school training which fails to fit most of the boys for the University, fails also in fitting them for anything else. Preoccupied with the matriculation, the schools neglect the rest of their business. The teachers who are giving their lives to high school work have a strong claim

upon public consideration and support. A comprehensive reform of secondary education would make their work more fruitful, would bring to their assistance competent and well-trained colleagues, would strengthen the University and would add to the vigour and practical capacity available for every kind of public and private service in Bengal.

19. A better secondary education would give to the workshops and factories of the future the responsible leaders which they will require. An experienced Indian witness tells us that one of the things which would most relieve the situation is a breakdown of the prejudice against working with the hands. Such a change would be promoted by a good modern course of secondary education in which the training of the hand and the study of science have an important place without detriment to the training given through language, literature and history. Books would mean more to high school boys in Bengal if the high schools were less bookish. Not only industry and commerce but the professions would be better served by schools which had a broader outlook and gave a more varied preparation for life.

20. In the second place, the University and its colleges fail under present conditions to give the abler students the educational opportunities which they deserve. The first question which we put to our correspondents asked whether the existing system of university education affords to young Indians of ability full opportunity of obtaining the highest training. An overwhelming majority replied in the negative.¹ Too little is done in the way of providing the special teaching and tutorial advice which a student of promise needs from the beginning of his course. In the undergraduate course in arts (laboratory instruction gives more opportunities for individual guidance in science) there is only one type of education for all students alike. Honours men and pass men attend the same lectures. This arrangement does not discriminate between the needs of different qualities of mind. The more promising students are kept back by the less intelligent. In the undergraduate classes too little is done for the boy of parts.

¹ The question was answered by 284 correspondents, five out of every six being Indians. The number of replies unfavourable to the present system of university education on the ground of its failure to meet the needs of students of ability, is 243. The other answers show for the most part only a qualified acquiescence in the existing arrangements, many expressing a desire that they should be greatly improved.

21. The remedy for this defect will be found in a remodelling of the university regulations which should institute honours courses distinct from those which lead up to a pass degree. But in order that they may provide the teaching and tutorial guidance which the abler students require, the colleges should be helped to increase and strengthen their staffs and in Calcutta there should be closer co-operation between the colleges and the University. The teachers should have more responsibility in planning the courses of study, and the University should have greater freedom in framing and changing its regulations.

22. In the third place, the physical side of education receives too little attention both in colleges and schools. The health of the students is unduly neglected. Facilities for games and physical training are inadequate. Great numbers of the college students and of school boys live in unsuitable houses where the conditions are very unfavourable to health. Secondary and higher education in Bengal would be a much greater boon to the community if improvements were made in those conditions of student life.

23. If the attention of the University and school authorities is directed systematically to the removal of these defects in physical education, much may be done at comparatively small expense. But the provision of well-arranged hostels for school boys and college students will entail great expenditure, especially in Calcutta, and must be undertaken upon a carefully considered plan by Government in co-operation with the universities and with the governing bodies of colleges and schools.

24. Obsession by the idea of passing examinations is another glaring defect in the existing system of university education. A degree has such value as a qualification for appointment to a post in Government service that, under the pressure of their poverty, the great majority of the students forget the wider purposes of university training and concentrate their thoughts upon the certificates which it confers. No one who tries to put himself into the position of a struggling Indian student, and to realise what he himself would probably do under like conditions, can wonder at the dominating place which examinations take in the student's outlook or at the anxiety with which he looks forward to them. They are the touchstone of the young man's career. His prospects in life depend on them. And he knows what sacrifices his parents have

made in order that he may win a degree. But, though the excessive importance which is now attached to the results of the university examinations is natural enough, the effects of it upon the spirit and tone of university life and studies are lamentable. University education in Bengal (and similar complaints come from other parts of India) is largely vitiated by this narrowness of aim:

25. Of course, from the time of its first introduction into Bengal, western education has owed part of its attraction to the fact that it qualifies those who receive it for posts in which a knowledge of English and of western ways of thought is indispensable. Similarly in every other country one of the reasons which brings students to the university is the desire to obtain a qualification which will help them in their careers. But what is noticeable in India is the disproportionate degree in which this motive influences the majority of students throughout their university course. It seems to overshadow all other considerations, and to close the mind to many of the wider interests of university life. In former days, when western ideas were fresh to India, students felt more enthusiasm on being brought into contact with European thought and literature in the course of their work for a university degree. The reading of English books, the words of European teachers, kindled their minds and gave them a new outlook on life. Thus the most important side of their university training was that in which self-interest was forgotten, although the students were fully aware of the money value of a western education as helping them to gain a post or to win success in a profession. The course of study had in itself a cultivating power because those who followed it were eager to absorb the ideas which it conveyed. This is still true in many cases. There are great numbers of students in Bengal, as elsewhere in India, to whom European literature and science bring the revelation of a new world of thought and criticism. But there is no longer the same wonder of novelty. Through books and newspapers, and often through talk heard at home, they have already become familiar with many of the ideas which, in the earlier days of western education in India, were first encountered in the college course. Hence the university curriculum, though it has been widened and improved, stirs the imagination of the modern student much less powerfully than it stirred the imagination of his predecessors in the earlier days of the new movement. There is need for a readjustment both of the subject-matter and of the methods of

university teaching to the new situation which has gradually arisen. A kind of teaching and a range of studies which served a very useful purpose in former days have become in great measure sterilised by routine. *What at one time was purposeful and efficacious, because the students themselves were eager for it for its own sake and believed in its efficacy, has through lapse of time and through familiarity lost much of its interest and power of inspiration.*

26. This is a point of capital importance to the wider implications of which many of our witnesses refer. We select therefore three passages from the evidence for quotation here. Rai Lalit-mohan Chatterjee Bahadur writes¹ :—

“The education imparted does not go deep enough for shaping mind and character. The student comes up from the school with a vicious habit ingrained in him—that of depending chiefly on his memory.....The student depends even more largely on bazar notes and keys because he has never acquired the power of accurate expression or of thinking for himself. The teaching that he receives is mainly, if not exclusively, directed to helping him to pass his examination. He brings with him so poor a basis of sound general education that higher teaching is more or less wasted on him. Then again, there is very little in his studies in the college to awaken living interest or touch his deepest instincts—and so call forth mental effort. For example, the political and social evolution in India is the most vital concern of young India ; modern university studies have little bearing on that.”

Mr. J. C. Coyajee of Presidency College urges² that—

“the unpractical.....ideals of our education have caused a great deal of harm.....Literary studies form the main body of the system, while tags and fringes of scientific, technical and commercial education have been attached to it by an after-thought as it were. The injury caused by this state of things is grave. It is clear even to the students that such education is of an unpractical nature, and leads to nowhere. The enthusiasm of the student is damped by seeing the comparative fruitlessness of the work at which he is toiling.....Our educational system should have as its distinguishing feature the ideal of practicability.....Our education should be many-sided so as to cater to the variety of the talents and needs of the alumni. A great change is at present coming over the educational system and ideals in England, and the present opportunity should be taken to transplant some of these new ideas here.”

The need for a great change in the temper and outlook of university studies is admirably stated by Mr. Justice Abdur Rahim who writes³ :—

“The present system has undoubtedly done valuable service in the past, but it is clear that for some time it has been out of touch with the requirements

¹ Question 1.

² General Memoranda, page 416.

³ *Ibid.*, pages 434-435.

of modern life. Obviously, a system of university education, which results in the training that is given being dissociated from, or found inadequate to meet, the needs of life understood in a comprehensive sense, has to be discarded or so moulded as to enable it to serve its proper purpose. *The scope of the Indian universities is extremely narrow, and it can hardly even be said that they pursue any conscious definite aim. An up-to-date university should press into its service all that there is in literatures, sciences and arts and in life calculated to develop the student's power of thought and action, his ability to co-operate and to organise, so that he may add to the intellectual, moral and material resources of his country and the world, and be a true leader of his people. University education can have little value if it does not succeed in liberating the student's mind and moral nature from the narrow traditions of the past and the harmful prejudices of his surroundings, and in fully developing in him the sense of social justice and responsibility, or if it does not instil in him the courage to live a full life and to enable those around him to live such a life. The aim of an Indian university should be to create an academic atmosphere in harmony with the above ideal.*

For the Indian student 'the dim shades of the cloisters' are not so much needed as the inspiration of the workshop and the factory; above all he should be made to realise, with the energy of faith, the teaching of science and experience that the miseries, sordidness and inefficiency that surround him are not inevitable but are mainly the product of social misarrangements capable of being set right.....The fact must also be frankly recognised that there will be no sense of reality about any scheme of university education so long as the opportunities of civic life are not in harmony with it. We must proceed in the hope that such harmony will be established and that the labour of this Commission will be co-ordinated with the contemplated political and industrial reorganisation. The conditions of the times make it clear that it will be for the good not only of humanity but the British Empire itself that the talent and moral energy of the people of India should be fully developed and utilised in the future ordering of human life along more stable, comprehensive and harmonious lines."

27. Thus by imperceptible degrees and from causes which have lain beyond the control of the universities, the older course of studies has lost much of its savour. And when we remember the extraordinarily rapid increase in the number of college students—an increase which has resulted in its being the lot of the majority to be herded in large classes, to be treated as a crowd and to be passed on from one stage of instruction to the next almost like materials through a machine—and that an ever increasing proportion of the students come from poverty-stricken homes and many of them from families which have no long tradition of higher education, we can hardly wonder at the exaggerated importance which it has become the custom to attach to success in passing examinations as giving value for the money spent in school and college fees. Lamentable as is the present state of affairs, there are many reasons

which forbid a harsh judgment upon it. One of our correspondents¹ refers in the following passage to the difficulties with which many of the students have to contend :—

“The most serious handicap of the Indian student is the intellectual atmosphere which he has to breathe. I need not say that no disparagement of the Indian intellect is implied in this statement. What I refer to is simply the outcome of well recognised sociological conditions peculiar to India and more especially to India in the mufassal, at this stage of her progress : (i) There is the great mass of illiteracy all round. I am not speaking here of illiteracy in the student’s own immediate circle of relations and friends, but of the illiteracy among those whom personally he may not know at all. It would be interesting to trace out some of the subtle pervasive ways in which this great mass of illiteracy is operative as an influence not only on the student (though he perhaps is most affected) but also to a greater or less extent upon all who have to live and work in India.....The general effect is a sort of aridity or sterility which is not favourable to normal many-sided intellectual growth. (ii) There is the fact that even when literacy is present it is usually a one-sided affair, hardly as yet affecting women to any appreciable degree. (iii) Only too frequently is the student an isolated unit in his family, in his social circle or, it may be, even in his neighbourhood.”

28. A chief purpose of the recommendations made in the following chapters is to suggest remedies for the narrowness of the student’s outlook which is one of the most depressing features of the existing system of school and college training. We do not disguise from ourselves the difficulty and extreme complexity of the problem. It springs in part from the social and economic situation of the country. It is also due in great measure to poverty—to the poverty of individual students and to the fact that most of the educational institutions have insufficient funds at their command. But much of the evil is due to remediable defects in the organisation of the universities and to a bad tradition which may be transformed. And it is clear that the way in which the universities have been used for the purpose of recruiting the State services has had a demoralising effect and has induced among many of the students a spirit of routine, together with excessive anxiety about the results of examinations followed by embitterment and depression in the case of failure.

29. Conscious of the need for the better adjustment of university courses to the demands of industrial and commercial careers, a large number of our witnesses urge that the University should provide an increased number of courses of training in technology. This

¹ Mr. M. B. Cameron in answer to Question 2.

powerful body of opinion shows that the time is ripe for a great extension in the activities of the University and for the establishment of closer relations with the leaders of commerce and industry. But it is not less clear that, before these hopes can be fully realised, there must be great reforms in the secondary schools and in the intermediate courses. Bengal needs a modernised secondary and higher secondary education in which science is indispensable. A great change is required in the intermediate stage. But the reform of the intermediate courses is bound up with the reorganisation and improvement of the secondary schools on the one hand, as well as with the reconstruction of the present university system on the other. Upon the evidence which we have received on this subject many of the recommendations made in the following chapters are based.

30. Even more fundamental is the need for a great reform in the methods of teaching both in schools and colleges. Upon this question the testimony of our witnesses is conclusive. The systematic training of those who intend to enter the teaching profession—a training which includes the study of the principles of education and thorough practice in the art of teaching a class—has changed the character of the educational system in many other countries. It is capable of rendering the same service to Bengal, provided that the prospects of the teaching profession are so improved as to attract a larger number of men of ability into this career. In the following chapters we make recommendations as to the part which Government, the University and public opinion may take in this reform.

31. For the work which awaits it in the advancement of learning and for the reform of its present methods of training, the University of Calcutta needs reconstruction and larger funds. The Senate has to serve as a representative assembly and at the same time to decide matters of detail appropriate to a small executive. It is neither large enough to reflect all the shades of relevant experience and opinion, nor small enough for the discussion of intricate affairs. The Syndicate is at once insufficiently representative, and too accidental in its composition to decide, with adequate knowledge of what they involve, all the problems which the insufficiently differentiated constitution of the University assigns to its care. We shall therefore propose the establishment of a teaching university in

Calcutta, based upon a new and closer association between a reconstituted university and reconstituted colleges. At Dacca, where the number of students will be smaller and the conditions of the problem simpler, we shall propose the establishment of a teaching university wherein the teaching will be directly and entirely under the control of the university authorities; and where, we hope, the close association of Hindu, Muslim and European teachers will in a specially high degree afford opportunities for collaboration in thought and scholarship among the representatives of the three cultures from the blending of which a new intellectual movement may arise in India. In the case of both universities we shall recommend that, in respect of the great bulk of ordinary academic business connected with teaching and courses of study, the direction of policy should be chiefly in the hands of the teaching body. We shall propose that such of the mufassal colleges as may provide courses for a degree should for the present remain in association with the University of Calcutta and be under its aegis and protection; but that they should do their work under new conditions which, while not hampering the growth of the teaching system in Calcutta or imperilling the standard of the degree, will give to all of them a due measure of academic freedom, and will afford to those which show potentiality of growth the opportunity of rising stage by stage to academic independence.

IV.

32. We are aware how much excellent work is being done not only by individuals but by institutions under the very unfavourable conditions which now prevail. We have observed in several directions the beginnings of a new life in the University and in some of the colleges, not least in the labours of the university professoriate and of many devoted college teachers, in the formation of councils for post-graduate study, in the improvement of scientific laboratories, in the rapid (though still inadequate) development of hostel life, in the growth of a sense of the obligation to social service, in the effective organisation of the university battalion, and in the increasing interest which is taken in questions of educational reform.

In circumstances of extraordinary difficulty, the University has achieved a great work. All over Bengal we found a grateful appreciation of its past service and a strong desire that it may be

so developed as to meet the rapidly changing and extending needs of the country. But we cannot conceal our apprehensions at the consequences which are likely to follow from a continuance of the conditions (statutory, administrative and financial) under which its work is now carried on. We believe that the evil effects of the present system are corroding the intelligence of young Bengal and that they will work increasing and irreparable mischief unless their causes are removed.

33. It is therefore our conviction that the reform of university and secondary education in the Presidency is a matter which does not safely admit of delay. India, with new political responsibilities, is coming into the fellowship of nations. Her education, from primary school to university, should be answerable to modern standards of what is best. Of late in Britain, in Western Europe, in Australia and in America there has been a widening of educational opportunity, an amendment of educational aims. A like change, made in a spirit which respects her own noblest traditions, is needed in India also. The ideals of a new age call insistently for a new purpose in education. India, for her own sake and for the sake of others, should bring her wisdom and experience to a task in which every nation is called to share.

34. In the eloquent and touching memorandum which he has submitted to us,¹ Mr. Ramendra Sunder Trivedi, Principal of Ripon College, draws a picture of education in ancient India and a contrast between its aims and those which have prevailed under the new influences coming from the West. He says that he is himself indebted for the most valued possession in his life to the benefit of western education received under the auspices of the University of Calcutta. He describes the University as 'a foreign plant belonging to a type which flourished on foreign soil.' But he holds that 'its importation was an urgent necessity of the time, suddenly created by the abrupt introduction of new conditions of life with a new order of political situation.' Those who introduced the new university system were constrained 'to plan out a machinery' but had not, in Mr. Trivedi's judgment, "the opportunity to think out whether it would organically blend with the life, spiritual and secular, of the people for whose benefit it was intended."

¹ General Memoranda, pages 303-309, see also the memorandum by Sir John Woodroffe in the same volume, pages 309-311.

35. Nevertheless he contends that—

“the University has not failed as an institution and as a machinery. It has admirably served the purpose for which it was primarily intended. It has given the State a body of faithful and able servants What is more valuable still it has broadened the very base of life of an oriental people hitherto accustomed to move along the narrow lines and ways of their own, in the seclusion imposed upon them by their own history and geography. Western thought and western culture brought to us through the universities have widened our field of vision, have placed before us new duties, have created new aspirations, and to-day the land is astir with the promptings of a new life, struggling to participate in the eternal conflict of life in the world ; striving to bring forth a type of Indian humanity which, broadly and securely based upon the foundations of its own special culture, will assert itself in the presence of the manhood of the world.”

36. With this appreciation of the work which the University of Calcutta has accomplished and with this indication of what should be its future aims, we find ourselves in full accord. And we believe that the drastic changes which are proposed in the following chapters will enable those aims to be realised. We shall welcome those changes because they will give new life and freedom to the University as a place of learning and of education, and will allow its teachers to combine what was best in the ancient educational tradition of India with what is best in the educational aspirations of the West.

37. Mr. Trivedi, while eager to acknowledge the service rendered to India by western education, looks back wistfully at what has been lost by the inevitable decay of the older tradition :—

“Western education has given us much ; we have been great gainers ; but there has been a cost, a cost as regards culture, a cost as regards respect for self and reverence for others, a cost as regards the nobility and dignity of life.”

He deplores the fact that, by too many of the present generation of students who seek western education, ‘knowledge is valued because knowledge brings success in life—often success in a vulgar sense.’ He regrets the change in the relation between teacher and pupil, the weakening of the personal tie by which they should be bound to one another. He feels constrained to say that the true end of university education, the advancement of learning, has ‘receded to a distance and is half-forgotten in the striving for the maintenance of a suitable standard of test of fitness among the clamorous claimants for a degree.’ But it would be inaccurate to ascribe these changes in temper and outlook to the introduction of western education as such, though they have unfortunately

accompanied it. Only a narrow and mistaken view of the work of the great schools and universities of the West could overlook their services to learning for its own sake ; the intimacy of the relationship between many of those who teach in them and many of those who learn ; and the disinterested purpose of what is of the highest and most permanent value in their work.

38. The truth is that what came into India with the advent of western education was a wave of varied influences, not a unified body of principles expressed in a single institution. The movement proceeded not from any single source in the West but from many sources. There were several currents in it. They conveyed, under a semblance of unity, different and in some respects conflicting views of life. Even when organised by the action of Government the influences which came from the West were not homogeneous. It was this fact which made them representative of the real life of Britain and other Western countries, and gave them variety of fertilising power. In no country in the West has education ever been wholly identified with any single point of view, or with any one body of doctrine, or even with any single code of principles. It has always been divided by inner conflicts or, at times of apparent tranquillity, by tacit divergence. This is the quality in it which has multiplied its points of contact with Indian thought. Each of the traits which Mr. Trivedi selects as being characteristic of education in ancient India (its identification with religious belief, the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake, the admission of the poor to learning, the personal tie between teacher and taught, the setting apart of a special class for the duty of teaching, freedom from detailed control by Government) has also been characteristic, at different times and in different degrees and forms, of one or more of the various traditions which have shown themselves indestructible in the complex fabric of education in the West. But modern educational thought in the West is affected by three fundamental assumptions, *viz.*, (1) that the whole nation, without exception, should have access to educational opportunity ; (2) that education should be equally accessible to both sexes ; and (3) that attendance at school should be compulsory for every one up to an appointed age-limit. The growing influence of these ideas upon Indian opinion is manifest, though the difficulty of their practical application in India is obvious.

39. In the middle of the nineteenth century what was written about educational aims in England was far from being fully representative of English practice. The ideas most loudly expressed in educational propaganda were individualistic. At their best, they were inspired by a belief that the free play of individualities would lead almost automatically to social justice and well-being. At their worst, they were coloured by a vulgar commercialism. English opinion was far from being unanimous in its acceptance of these ideas. There were no better critics of what was crude and one-sided in them than Englishmen like Dickens and Ruskin.

40. But the circumstances of the time gave a disproportionate degree of importance to the individualistic and utilitarian theories of education which were being vigorously stated by influential speakers and writers in England. It is not surprising therefore that to many Indians the utilitarian side of western education appeared to be its characteristic feature. Other reasons deepened this impression. The close connexion between a university degree and admission to employment under Government emphasised the money value of the new education. The usefulness of being able to speak English caused many Indians to think of western education as being mainly a valuable kind of technical instruction, and as very different in its aim from the education which he had been accustomed to associate with the idea of religious training. This impression was deepened by the fact that, for good reasons of neutrality, the Government confined the work of its own schools and colleges to secular subjects. Another novelty, the examination-system, accentuated the more self-regarding side of education and, owing to the special difficulties imposed upon Indian students by the inevitable use of English as the medium, focussed an undue amount of their attention upon a side of school and college work which in England usually held a more subordinate place. For these reasons there has been a good deal of misunderstanding in India about the true significance of Western ideals of education.

41. But the misunderstandings, though important, were superficial. The more penetrating influences of the new movement of ideas lay deep below the surface. They were communicated through the personality of individuals rather than by books alone. They were expressed in tones of mind and of judgment, not in clear-cut

generalisations. In their variety, in their dissimilarity of view, and even in their hesitations, they were the true representatives of the real forces which were at work in the education of the West. They showed that the affinities between it and some of the chief characteristics of the ancient Indian tradition were closer than appears at first sight. They, like that tradition, laid stress upon the value of the personality of the teacher ; upon religious influences in education ; upon the disinterested love of learning ; upon the need for freedom in the teacher's work.

42. The last seventy years in Western Europe, and not least in England, have been a period of confused struggle between different educational ideals. There has been a long endeavour to adjust each branch of education to the authority of the State without doing violence to the many living traditions which are found in each grade of national education. But, for the time at any rate, the tone of educational thought which prevails in England is not, in the older sense of the word, individualistic. The reaction has come. And, though individuality is once again fighting for recognition as a necessary side of the truth, popular views of education are influenced by the writings of Ruskin rather than by the writings of Bain and Smiles.

43. Those who, like Mr. Trivedi, believe that the ancient educational tradition of India embodied many principles which should be followed to-day will find encouragement in the new tendencies of educational thought in England. The Workers' Educational Association insists upon the importance of the purely disinterested and non-utilitarian side of education, not least to those who have to earn their living by the labour of their hands. There is an even more widely diffused conviction that those who are competent to follow higher studies should not be excluded from them by poverty. It is the general desire to preserve varied initiative in education, while at the same time eliminating personal considerations of pecuniary profit from its supply. And perhaps the crucial problem in English, as in Indian, education is to discover a way of giving public subsidy to education without hampering the freedom of those teachers who are qualified for their work. We are encouraged to hope that the Universities of Calcutta and Dacca will stand for an ideal in education which is not less faithful to the best Indian traditions because it is in harmony with the new educational aspirations of the West.

44. Convinced that nothing short of a comprehensive reconstruction of the university system will meet the needs of the time, we shall propose in the following chapters what can only be called a new departure in secondary and higher education in Bengal. Educational reform on a bold and generous plan may save Bengal from the loss and danger which threaten a country when the training of its educated classes has got out of gear with the economic needs of the nation. Those economic needs call for a spirit of industrial enterprise, awake to the claims of the community and of its work-people as well as to opportunities of private gain. The industrial and commercial interests of Bengal will be best served by a generation of young men trained to vigorous initiative, equipped with liberal culture, scientific in temper of mind, generous in social purpose, and freed from shamefacedness about working with their hands. A new kind of education is needed to fit young Bengal for the new kinds of work which it is in the interest of themselves and of their country that they should be better prepared to undertake. And the way to what is wise and farseeing in the planning of primary education for India (the most inspiring and most perilous of tasks) lies through such changes in the life of the University and of the high schools as will deepen the sense of fellow-service and will train judgment to social ends.

CHAPTER XXXI.

REFORM OF SECONDARY EDUCATION. PROPOSED NEW AUTHORITY.¹

I.—The need for a new authority for secondary and intermediate education.

1. Those who have at heart the welfare of Bengal, and wish the whole community to advance in unity of purpose and in economic power feel strongly that the country needs more and better education; and that no boys and girls should be shut out, either by the straitened means of their parents or by the remoteness of their home, from access to the training which is best adapted to their capacity and designed to prepare them most effectively for citizenship and livelihood. It would be fair to express their view in the following words:—

The country is in urgent need of more schools and more colleges, but the schools should teach better and the colleges should give a more thorough preparation for life. To restrict education would be unjust and short-sighted. To reduplicate the existing kind of education would produce an academic proletariat, hungry, discontented and inept. But to improve education, while at the same time making it more accessible; to adapt it to the needs of modern industry, while at the same time guarding the interests of liberal culture; to raise the standards of university training, while at the same time excluding none who should prove their competence to profit by it—such a policy would be both wise and lucrative, a good investment and the fulfilment of a public trust.

2. It will be remembered with what cogency and weight of experience a large number of our correspondents urge that a test corresponding to the intermediate examination should be the standard of admission to the courses of the University.² They believe

¹ For a description of the present state of the high schools in Bengal see Chapter VIII; of education in the European and Anglo-Indian secondary schools, Chapter XI; of the matriculation examination, Chapter IX; of the present arrangements for the recognition of schools, Chapter X; of the secondary education of girls, Chapter XIV; of the examination system, Chapter XVII; of the trend of opinion as to the medium of instruction in secondary schools, Chapter XVIII; and of the relations between Government and private enterprise in secondary education, Chapter IV.

² See Chapters IX and XII.

that many of the new educational facilities needed in Bengal should be provided at the stage which lies between the present matriculation and the intermediate; that this period in a boy's education might be put to better use; that within this space of two years it would be possible to give courses of training more adapted to the age of the pupils and diversified according to their intentions in life; and that a re-ordering and enlargement of the educational opportunities offered at this stage would utilise much mental power which is now running to waste; would invigorate the schools; would relieve the University from the encumbrance of immature students; would allow a more effective and timely preparation for practical careers; would improve the equipment of recruits for the subordinate grades of Government service, and would be beneficial to all public or private interests concerned.

3. In this view we concur, having been convinced by what we have seen in the course of our inquiry and by the evidence submitted to us that some of the work now attempted by the colleges would be better done elsewhere. An improvement in higher secondary education seems to us to be needed and to provide the key to the solution of this part of the problem of educational reform. We recommend, because it is one of the necessary conditions of the right delimitation between school and university work, that admission to the courses provided by the University in preparation for a degree should in future take place at the level of what is now called the intermediate examination. The present matriculation should cease to entitle a student to enter upon a university course. It comes at a stage in his education when it is premature to guarantee his fitness for that grade of work which alone it is appropriate for the University to require. But we should not approve such a raising of the standard of admission to the university if it were proposed as an isolated reform, still less if it were suggested as the sole remedy for present defects. We recommend it in context with a number of much needed additions to the educational resources of the Presidency. It is not as a limiting or restrictive measure that it appeals to us, but as one which will liberate for other and more fruitful use two important, and often misdirected, years in a student's life.

4. To raise the standard of admission to the University to the level of the present intermediate examination would by itself be no remedy for what is amiss in the higher education of Bengal. Better provision than now exists must be made for the training of students during the two years which they now give to the intermediate course at the University. We have therefore had to consider in what forms that training should be offered ; in what institutions it should be given ; how those institutions, whether belonging to Government or under the management of other bodies, should be adequately staffed with teachers ; and what should be the relations of those institutions to the high schools whether public or private. Thus the implications of our reference have constrained us to review the connexion between the University and the high schools. We have come to the conclusion that the future welfare of the University depends upon improvements being made in secondary education. And we find that this reform, along with other changes inseparable from it, involves a re-casting of a considerable part of the educational system of Bengal.

5. Whatever authority may take in hand the reorganisation of secondary and intermediate education in Bengal will find itself engaged upon a many-sided and difficult task. It will first have to plan the courses of training for pupils during the two years corresponding to the present intermediate stage, and to provide these courses at a number of convenient centres throughout Bengal. This part of the controlling authority's work will call for a study of the needs of the various callings in life for which pupils prepare themselves; both the callings like business, agriculture and the lower grades of Government service which in most cases are best entered at about 18 years of age, and also the callings for which a further course at the University or at a professional school is indispensable or expedient. The authority would then be in a position to decide what kind of examination it would be appropriate to hold at the end of each of these alternative courses of higher secondary education, and how these examinations should be conducted.

6. The authority would next find it necessary to determine what examination should admit to this two years' course and what subjects should be compulsory in it. Such an examination would be held at the end of the high school course

We suggest that it should be called the high school examination. Its aim should be to test the individual capacities and attainments of the pupils who have been trained in a high English school up to about sixteen years of age. It would mark the transition from the lower to the higher stage of a complete secondary education. We feel that for this test the title of school final examination would be a misnomer. To apply to it a name signifying the terminus of school studies would be misleading to the public and to parents. Such a usage would give too limited an idea of secondary education. It would suggest, and be wrong in suggesting, to employers and the public that the training which should be given in a good secondary school may be completed by a pupil at about sixteen years of age. This is far from being true, the next two years being of vital importance in the intellectual development of all promising boys or girls. At the same time, there are many pupils (at present about a quarter of the whole number who pass) who do not carry their formal education beyond this point. In their case a certificate of having passed the high school examination would be a useful credential. For the majority of the successful candidates it would be the passport admitting them to the next stage in their studies.

7. In order to decide what requirements it would be practicable to exact from the high schools in regard to this examination, the authority would be obliged to review the equipment of the high schools (the best teaching of science, for example, not being possible without some apparatus and facilities for practical work), the qualifications and skill of their teachers, the healthiness of the school premises, the means afforded for physical development and training, the school libraries, the aims and methods of inspection, and the conditions upon which schools should receive subsidies from public funds.

8. But the duties of such an authority would necessarily embrace even a wider field. Some of the courses provided in the stage of higher secondary education (now called the intermediate) would, for the reasons given in the next chapter, include a considerable measure of technical training. A wise adjustment of the technical part of these courses to liberal education on the one hand and to the special needs of industry and agriculture on the other would be possible only to an authority which acted in close co-operation

with the department responsible for technical education or was itself responsible for at least a considerable part of it. In Bengal as in England, it would be found that secondary and technical education are at certain points necessarily intermixed and, where combined in one course of training, should be under the supervision of the same authority. Still more clearly would this be seen when in future the work of continuation classes came to be considered.¹ In a well-organised system of education, continuation classes are in part technical, in part general, in scope. And a large proportion of their pupils are of secondary school age. The same authority which superintends secondary education should have direction of most continuation classes also and be responsible for their effective development. Again, a training in the scientific subjects which are required in preparation for the medical profession should be brought within the reach of pupils in some at least of the institutions giving higher secondary education. Lastly, the authority would touch the problem of primary education at one vital point—in the training of teachers of elementary schools. The years during which some of these teachers should receive their general and professional preparation fall within the stage of secondary education with which the authority would have immediate concern.

9. Thus the systematic reorganisation and improvement of higher secondary education in Bengal entails a central authority which would need to have under its superintendence (1) secondary and higher secondary education, (2) a part of technical education, (3) all the middle and upper grades of continuation classes (as soon as they are organised in Bengal), (4) some part of the preliminary training for certain professions, and (5) the work of many institutions giving professional preparation for teachers. Besides superintending all these grades of education, so closely related to one another that they cannot advantageously be placed under divided supervision, the authority might be of service in

¹ Continuation classes are courses of instruction given in the day time or at night for students of from 14 years of age upwards who have already left the day school for employment or home duties but who wish to continue their education at times when their avocations allow them to attend. These classes are of three grades, the most elementary of the three being articulated with the work done in the primary schools, the middle and highest grades being of a standard comparable, subject by subject, with that reached in secondary day schools or even in more advanced institutions.

helping that part of the work of madrassahs which aims at giving a high school training, and would also need to give special attention to the courses of education for girls.

10. In order to discharge these duties, the authority would require to have large funds at its disposal. The improvement of the salaries and prospects of teachers in secondary schools is an indispensable condition of reform. The power of allocating substantial grants to inspected schools under the management of private bodies is not less necessary to success. And, in order that teachers in all recognised secondary schools may enjoy rights to superannuation allowances on the completion of their term of service, the authority should have power to organise a superannuation system and to contribute to its cost.

II.—Proposed composition of the new authority.

11. It will be apparent from what has been said in the preceding paragraphs that the great advantages which would accrue from raising the standard of admission to the University from the level of the present matriculation to that of a new and improved intermediate examination cannot be secured without an extensive reorganisation of higher secondary education in the Presidency. But such a reorganisation will be successful in proportion to the good will with which it is viewed by the public at large. The public must feel assured that the proposed changes will give larger and more varied educational opportunities to the younger generation and that the financial sacrifices which they entail may confidently be expected to yield a remunerative return. Above all, the central educational authority must be so constituted as to command the confidence of the different sections of the community whose co-operation is indispensable to the success of any adequate plan of educational reform.

12. For the last-named reason, a plan which might appear at first sight to offer a simple solution of the difficulty must be dismissed as impracticable in Bengal. A proposal to transfer to the Department of Public Instruction in its present form the powers now exercised by the University in regard to the recognition of schools would arouse deep resentment in the Presidency and would excite widespread opposition. The evidence which we

have quoted earlier in this report¹ shows how ready public opinion would be to take alarm at any such curtailment of the influence of the University. A plan of educational reform based upon a transference to the Department of Public Instruction, as the latter is now constituted in its relation to Government, of the responsibility for the recognition of schools now exercised by the University would be regarded as a reactionary measure and as a menace to educational freedom. The intensity of the feeling must be borne in mind by all who may be responsible for proposing changes in the educational system of Bengal. The feeling springs from a conviction, or it might be truer to say from an instinct, that education should not be controlled in all its vital issues by a bureaucracy, however competent and disinterested, acting in the name of the Government. State action and State supervision are necessary as factors in educational policy, but they should leave a wide margin for the exercise of free initiative, even at the cost of what may seem to be waste of energy and some disregard of the intellectual standards accepted as authoritative by the expert opinion of the time. In Bengal the University, though closely connected with Government, has wisely been allowed to serve as one of the safety-valves of non-official opinion in educational affairs, and to exert its influence in a wider sphere than the purely academic. It has been given a large measure of responsibility for the secondary education imparted in high English schools—a responsibility which, however imperfectly it may have been discharged and in spite of its having failed in practice to secure variety of educational development, is jealously guarded as a guarantee against monopoly of Governmental control. This responsibility would not willingly be surrendered except to a new authority more representative of public opinion than the present Department of Public Instruction or even than the University itself. Rightly or wrongly, the proposal to transfer the responsibility from the University to the Department of Public Instruction has become associated in the public mind with designs unfavourable to the wider diffusion of educational opportunity. Our evidence shows that this suspicion is strong in some other parts of India. But it is nowhere more deep-seated than in Bengal.

¹ Chapter X, paras. 32-38.

It would therefore be unwise to infer from the experience of the working of the school final system in other provinces that public opinion in this Presidency would be indifferent to any substantial transference of powers from the University to the Department of Public Instruction. In Bengal such a transference would jeopardise the good understanding between the Government and the educated classes upon which the prospects of effective reform in the existing system of education mainly depend.

13. These considerations would in themselves have sufficed to deter us from proposing that the duty of recognising schools should be transferred from the University to the Department of Public Instruction in its present form. But another reason makes such a plan impracticable. The Department, as it is now constituted, has neither the staff nor the organisation which would enable it to discharge with efficiency the responsible duties of a central authority for secondary education. It is undermanned. It is a subordinate department of the Secretariat. The funds at its command are inadequate to enable it to keep even the Government high schools up to a proper standard of staff and equipment, and fall far short of what is needed for the effective assistance of the aided schools. Its resources are so limited that it cannot offer inducements to all privately managed high schools to come under its guidance and inspection. More than half of the high schools in the Presidency lie altogether outside the range of its direct influence. The Department is powerless to offer the terms which would make it worth their while to associate themselves with an organised system of secondary education. If therefore by a stroke of the pen the recognition of schools were transferred from the University to the Department of Public Instruction in its present form, the latter would find itself in a position hardly less embarrassing than that now occupied by the University Syndicate. It would have responsibility without the means of discharging that responsibility in a way which would secure the welfare of secondary education. It would be unable to cope with the huge addition made to its work of inspection. For this reason, its inspections would in most cases be hurried and lacking in the friendly suggestions as to methods of teaching and organisation which are the most valuable part of school inspection but necessitate frequent visits to many schools and an intimate knowledge of their circumstances and difficulties. The Department would be unable to provide the grants-in-aid

which are needed if the weaker schools are to be raised to a proper level of efficiency. It would therefore be faced with an intolerable situation. Its choice would often lie between depriving a locality of its sole and slender opportunities of secondary education and granting recognition to a school which had little claim to be recognised.

Knowing the keen interest which the officers of the Department of Public Instruction take in the education of Bengal, and having had many opportunities of realising the value of the service which they render, we feel that it would be unfair to them to recommend a plan which would inevitably put them in a false position and would throw upon them duties which under existing conditions they could not possibly discharge.

14. The fact is that secondary, like university, education in Bengal has reached a stage at which further satisfactory progress is impossible without a complete reorganisation of the existing administrative conditions. The whole system is suffering from anaemia, which is due partly to lack of funds, partly to the lack of an energetic purpose aiming at improved standards of teaching and of educational opportunity. There can be no substantial improvement without reconstruction. The existing system cannot be patched up. What is needed is far-reaching reorganisation. And such a reorganisation is impossible except on two conditions. It must have behind it a strong movement of public opinion; and it must be accompanied by greatly increased expenditure from public funds. There are many signs that public opinion in Bengal realises the value of education. It will be for the Government and the tax-payers to decide whether they are prepared to furnish the funds which any serious improvement of education in the Presidency will require. We ourselves entertain no doubt that a greatly increased expenditure upon education, an expenditure to which public funds and private liberality should contribute, is necessary in the interests of Bengal and that, if wisely directed, it will be remunerative. But, as a first condition to the effectiveness of such expenditure, we would emphasise the need for a reconstruction of the existing system of educational administration upon lines which will encourage public opinion to co-operate more closely with the Government and will enable consideration to be given to the needs of national education as a whole.

15. There is a fundamental unity in national education which should be recognised and strengthened by the system adopted for its administration. The secondary schools should rest upon a sound foundation of elementary teaching; the universities depend upon the work done by the secondary schools in preparing students for their degree courses; technical education in its different grades presupposes a good preparation in the elementary and secondary schools. This is not to say that in any grade all the schools should work on one pattern. Still less does it indicate that the Government should have a monopoly of educational control or discourage independent initiative alongside of its own efforts. But it means that, with many diversities of method and with stress laid upon different sides of school work in a variety of schools according with the aims and convictions of different sections of the community, there should be a broad purpose common to the whole of the educational system of the country. And the central authority of the State, representing the diverse elements of the people, should have cognisance of the whole of education and should give the aid necessary to the healthy development of all its parts. Nor is this the only point of view from which the problems of public education in its several grades are seen to be closely inter-related. Directly or indirectly the whole community is concerned in the welfare and progress of the universities, of the technical institutions and of the secondary and primary schools. All of these are designed to further the collective interest of the people. The State is therefore called upon to take a large view of education in all its branches, to encourage their coordination, to direct public attention to the services which they severally render and to require the tax-payer to provide the funds which may be necessary to their maintenance in an efficient condition. To whatever special bodies it may entrust the administration of the different grades of education, the State cannot abrogate the duty of exercising a general superintendence over education as a whole and of securing a balance and a well-proportioned development of all its sides. It is outside our province to discuss the question of the administrative machinery by means of which such general superintendence may be exercised in the manner which will secure the maximum of civic co-operation and of administrative economy and precision. It will be sufficient to say that, in the recommendations which we are about to make, we presuppose the unifying influence of the State; and we regard that influence, if so applied

as to encourage liberty of thought and diversity of enterprise as fundamentally necessary, through whatever organ it may be exercised, to the welfare and progress of public education.

16. As part of the reorganisation of the educational administration of Bengal, we think it desirable that there should be a change in the position and powers of the Director of Public Instruction. He should be the principal adviser to the Member or Minister responsible for education. As the work of Government expands in this sphere and grows more onerous and complicated, it will become the more necessary that the Member or Minister in charge of the subject should have the assistance of a high official intimately acquainted with the conditions and needs of every grade and type of education. The duties of the Director of Public Instruction will thus become even more responsible than they have been in the past, and we attach great importance to the influence which he will be in a position to exercise through his knowledge both of the business of the various authorities with which the Government will be associated in the various grades of education—university, technical, secondary and elementary—and also of educational developments in other parts of India and abroad. In view of the increased responsibilities which will thus devolve in future upon the Director of Public Instruction, we think that he should be a secretary to Government. This higher status would correspond to the enhanced importance of public education in the business of the State.

17. We have seen that public education in all its many ramifications and under its various forms of management is rightly regarded as one aspect of national life which calls for recognition as an undivided whole by the State. But there are parts of it which present problems so unlike those requiring solution in other grades as to lend themselves advantageously to separate administration. Among the parts of education to which such distinct administration is appropriate is that comprising the schools and colleges which prepare pupils for the universities. It is with this part of education that we are specially concerned in this chapter of our report and, on general grounds alone, we should have been prepared to recommend that the high English schools, from which the universities draw the successive generations of their students, should receive special administrative treatment in any reorganisation of the edu-

educational resources of the Presidency. But the existing circumstances in Bengal make such a recommendation not only appropriate but inevitable. In Bengal we find that the high English schools suffer from the effects of a division of responsibility between the University and the Department of Public Instruction.¹ The University, which decides whether a school shall have the right to present candidates for matriculation, does not command the funds where-with it might enable the weaker schools, where these are necessary to meet the needs of their district, to attain to a proper level of efficiency in their staff and equipment. The Department of Public Instruction which has, or should have, the funds for subsidising the schools, has no responsibility for deciding whether a school deserves to enjoy the matriculation privilege upon which its prosperity and even its existence depend. Moreover, in Bengal as elsewhere in India, what should be the province of higher secondary education is divided in such a way as to fall at present under two independent jurisdictions. The high English schools, in so far as they depend wholly or partly upon public funds, come under the supervision of the Department of Public Instruction. The intermediate courses, which should be so recast as to afford more varied educational opportunities to students who have completed their course at the high school, are at present under the care of the University which, naturally enough, regards them simply as part of the academic curriculum.

18. Thus, as a preliminary to the satisfactory organisation of public education in Bengal, there is need for a fresh delimitation of the frontier which divides the province of university from that of higher secondary education. The present division of responsibility between the University and the Department of Public Instruction should be replaced by a form of superintendence which would combine the experience of these two authorities in effective union and would associate with them representatives of the great callings for which the schools and intermediate colleges would prepare many of their students. And, as a basis for more generous aid to the educational institutions concerned, both as regards the payment of their teachers and the improvement of their equipment, all the high English schools should be encouraged to come within the purview of the central authority. If, as we hope,

¹ Chapters X, paras. 1-28 and XXVIII, paras. 50-53

a great period of educational advance is about to open in Bengal, the new conditions will call for close co-operation between the University, the public and the Government. That co-operation should be embodied in a new system of administration, the main features of which we proceed to define.

19. We do not speak here of the system of administration which the Government of Bengal may find it desirable to adopt as a means of discharging its general and fundamental responsibilities towards all grades of education in the State. We confine ourselves to a narrower but hardly less important issue, namely, the method of organisation by which it will be able to secure in the special circumstances of the Presidency the form of superintendence likely to prove most effective in practice and most acceptable to public opinion in the sphere of secondary and intermediate education. The distinct nature of the issues which arise in this part of public education, the uncorrelated statutory powers of the University and of the Department of Public Instruction which have to be harmonised before co-ordinated control can be secured, and the complex technical problems which must be solved in seeking to establish a smoothly working system of administration, differentiate this from other parts of the task which Government must essay in the arrangement and rectification of educational opportunities in Bengal.

20. We propose therefore that the duty of remodelling this grade of education and of raising it to a state of efficiency should be entrusted to a new Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education so constituted as to be representative of the various forms of experience which have a valid claim to be consulted in this matter. This authority should not be merely advisory or consultative but should exercise executive powers in the sphere of secondary and intermediate education. We recommend therefore that it should be in such relation to Government and the Legislative Council as will secure to it the necessary grants from public funds and will lay open its work to general review along with that of other parts of the educational administration of the State.

21. It will be borne in mind that no satisfactory reorganisation of secondary and intermediate education is possible in Bengal unless three duties which now devolve upon the University are transferred to the Board. The first of these is the determination

of the courses of study which should be followed in the institutions providing intermediate training and in the high English schools in preparation for that training. The second duty is the conduct of two very important public examinations. The third duty is that of deciding which of the high English schools should be recognised as entitled to present candidates for the earlier of these examinations and which of the institutions giving intermediate training should enjoy the corresponding privilege of presenting candidates for the later one. These duties, however, could not be effectively discharged by a Board whose powers were limited to those functions only; and such a limitation would be unwise because certain to reproduce the administrative *impasse* which has arisen from the present division of responsibility between the University and the Department of Public Instruction.

22. We are now in a position to discuss the composition of the Board to which we recommend that the duty of organising and developing secondary and intermediate education should be assigned. In the first place, the University of Calcutta and the University of Dacca should each send representatives to the Board in numbers sufficient to secure an adequate expression of university experience and requirements. The universities have a valid claim to a share in the responsibility of influencing and guiding the institutions which impart the education preparatory or ancillary to degree courses. We think that the universities should severally select their own representatives to serve on the Board and that their nominations should be accepted by Government. Secondly, in order that its policy may be kept in harmony with the requirements of practical careers, the Board should include representatives of agriculture, industry and commerce. The special experience of these members, besides giving weight to the Board's authority, would be available in the arrangement and supervision of the courses which will prepare students during their intermediate training for the practical and scientific needs of the farm, the workshop and the office. Thirdly, seeing that one of the most important duties of the Board will be to provide courses of training favourable to the physical development of the students and to secure a high standard of hygiene in the premises of the institutions under its care, its members should include a medical man with experience in the problems of public health. Fourthly, one or more persons experi-

enced in teaching and well acquainted with the present conditions of work in secondary schools and intermediate classes in Bengal should have a place on the Board, in order that the plans for new courses of study and for modifications in the examination requirements may be framed with due regard to what is wise and practicable for boys and girls alike. This provision seems to us desirable on account of the influence which regulations for examination exert upon methods of instruction. But, in addition to those elements which we have enumerated, there are three others which appear to us to be indispensable constituents of the Board. First, there should be a personal link between the Board and the non-official members of the Bengal Legislative Council. Secondly, the Director of Public Instruction should be *ex-officio* a member of the Board, because his experience will be of the highest value in its deliberations and because a close connexion will be maintained in this way between the Board and the Department of Public Instruction. Thirdly, there should be an adequate representation of Hindu and Muslim opinion and interests. It is clear that the success of the Board's work will depend upon its combining expert judgment with an intimate knowledge of the needs and sentiments of the community which it serves.

23. It will doubtless be found possible to secure, at any rate in part, an effective representation of Hindu and Muslim opinion by means of the selection of some of the members who will be primarily chosen for their special experience in the callings mentioned in the last paragraph. But if this should fail to furnish the Board with a sufficient number of members able to speak with weight on behalf of the Hindu and Muslim communities, we regard it as of great importance that the deficiency should be supplied by special nominations. And in present circumstances this need is more likely to arise in the case of the Musalmans than of the Hindus. We are aware with what anxiety the leaders of the Muslim community have regarded, and still regard, proposals for the establishment of a Board of Education.¹ Our own proposals differ widely from those to which the criticisms of the Muslim leaders were addressed. But in so far as the plan which we recommend would

¹ See memorandum of Nawab Syed Nawabaly Chaudhury (Question 4) and speeches of Mr. Aminur Rahman, Maulvi A. K. Fazlul Huq and others in the Bengal Legislative Council, September 4th, 1917.

entrust to a composite body some powers and duties which are now exercised directly by the Government, we realise that it may be regarded with some of the misgivings which were entertained by the representatives of Muslim opinion with respect to other proposals. We would emphasise therefore the importance of securing for the Musalmans, who form so important a part of the population of Bengal, effective representation upon the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education. Their educational traditions require special attention. Their difficulties (arising mainly from an educational backwardness from which they are making great efforts to emerge) give them at this time a claim to exceptional encouragement.¹ And, if the membership of competent Musalmans is secured upon the Board and if in the allocation of funds and in the definition of the duties and powers of the Board the Government assure due regard being given to Muslim requirements, we entertain the hope that the anxiety felt by the Muslim leaders as to the possible effects of the action of such a composite authority upon the educational interests of the Musalmans may abate and give place to a feeling favourable to a plan which in our judgment will promote Muslim culture and conduce to increased vigour and unity in the education of Bengal. We share their wish to encourage the new educational hopes and ambitions of Muslim students in Eastern Bengal and elsewhere, but are convinced that the realisation of those hopes can be compassed only by improvements in schools and colleges which a well-organised central authority, so constituted as to pay regard to communal needs, will alone have the power and funds to secure.

24. It is not easy to combine the variety of elements which, for the reasons stated in the preceding paragraphs, must find a place in a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education for Bengal with the strict limitation of numbers which is desirable on grounds of economy and of administrative convenience. Were the latter the conditions with which alone it was necessary to comply, we should have proposed a Board of from five to seven members. But the special circumstances of the problem which presents itself for solution in Bengal make the representation of many interests and kinds of experience indispensable. And in the first years of the Board's work this combination of varied elements will have the

¹ Chapter VI.

positive advantage of securing due regard to diverse interests and educational needs, and of thus establishing from the beginning of the new system a broad tradition in the administration of secondary and intermediate education.

25. In a Board of from fifteen to eighteen members it will be possible to provide for the representation of the necessary kinds of experience and of the interests involved. We do not regard this number, which in the special circumstances of the case cannot be reduced, as being unduly large or as incompatible, under the conditions which we shall propose, with the effective discharge of the duties for which the members will be responsible. Two conditions should be complied with in the constitution of the Board. Its members should be so chosen as to secure the presence of not less than three members both of the Hindu and of the Muslim communities, in order that Hindu and Muslim opinions and interests may be represented in its deliberations. And a majority of the Board should be non-officials, *i.e.*, not in receipt of a salary directly paid by Government.

Subject to these conditions the Board should consist of the following members :—

A President, who should be a salaried and whole-time officer appointed by Government for a period of years to be defined.

The Director of Public Instruction, *ex-officio*.

One member elected by the non-official members of the Legislative Council of Bengal.

Seven University representatives, five being appointed by the University of Calcutta (one of these having special knowledge of mufassal conditions) and two by the University of Dacca. The appointments should be made in each case by the University Court, but it should be the duty of the Executive Council of the University to suggest names for the consideration of the Court. Some of these appointments might be so made as to include representatives of the kinds of experience mentioned below. Casual vacancies should be filled by the Executive Council.

Five to eight members (as might be found desirable or necessary) appointed by the Government of Bengal and chosen on the ground of their special knowledge of education and with a view to the representation of the following categories of experience, if not otherwise provided for :—

Agriculture :

Industry and Commerce :

Medicine and Public Health :

Teaching in intermediate colleges and in secondary schools :

The education of girls :

The educational interests of the domiciled community.

Ordinary members should hold office for a term of three years and be re-eligible.

26. A Board thus constituted would be able to meet at sufficiently frequent intervals and to pursue a continuous and consistent policy. Important executive responsibilities would necessarily devolve upon the President to whom, with the help of the Secretary and his staff, would fall the duty of arranging the business in a form which would enable the Board to make a rapid decision upon administrative questions submitted to it. The office of the Board should, if possible, be in the same building as that of the Department of Public Instruction. This arrangement would be administratively convenient and would allow the most economical use to be made of the clerical staff.

27. The Board would find it necessary to appoint expert standing committees to deal with special branches of its work in connexion with the various examinations and courses of study. It should appoint a special Advisory Committee, including representatives of the University Board of Women's Education,¹ to consider and report to it on the needs and curricula of schools and intermediate colleges for girls. The Board should also form a special committee, upon which the Islamic Department of Dacca University should be strongly represented, to conduct the examination held at the end of the reformed madrassah course and corresponding to the present matriculation, and also the examination held two years later and corresponding to the intermediate examination in Islamic studies.² The work of this special committee should, as far as possible, be done at Dacca. The Board would also find it convenient to appoint an advisory committee which it could consult on questions affecting the educational welfare of the now backward classes.³ Furthermore, if the members of the Board should think it desirable to have regular opportunities of discussing questions of importance with those engaged in educational work in the various districts of Bengal, it should be within their power to constitute, in consultation with the Government, either Divisional Advisory Committees or a general Advisory Council widely representative of experience in secondary and intermediate

¹ Chapter XXXVII, paras. 83-85.

² Chapter XVI and Chapter XIII, para. 108.

³ Chapter VII.

education in the Presidency. If such an Advisory Council were formed, occasional meetings would suffice for its deliberations.

28. A necessary part of the new arrangements which we propose is that the University of Calcutta should receive from the Government an annual grant to compensate it in full for the loss of the income which it now derives from fees paid to it by candidates for the matriculation and intermediate examinations. This grant should be permanent and be additional to the present and any future subsidy required for the new developments of the Teaching University in Calcutta and for the improvement of the colleges in the mufassal. It should be based upon a careful estimate of the net income which the University of Calcutta enjoyed for general university purposes from the conduct of the above-mentioned examinations in the academic year or years immediately preceding the establishment of the Board.

29. Before proceeding to discuss the duties and powers of the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, we must consider the situation which may arise in the first stage of the transition from the present arrangements. Any one of three contingencies may arise. First, the establishment of the Board may be undertaken concurrently with the reconstruction of the University of Calcutta and with the establishment of the University of Dacca. Secondly, the Board may be established before steps are taken to reconstruct the University of Calcutta. Thirdly, the reconstitution of the University of Calcutta and the foundation of the University of Dacca may precede the establishment of the Board. The first of these three cases calls for no further consideration at this point in our report.¹ With respect to the second case, it will be borne in mind that the remodelling of the intermediate courses, the provision of new intermediate colleges throughout Bengal and the relief of the University and its affiliated colleges from the duty of giving instruction to students in the intermediate grade are fundamental conditions of university reorganisation and reform. We regard it as essential that in Bengal the duties of conducting the high school and intermediate examinations and of recognising high English schools should be entrusted to a representative Board, and we are not prepared to recommend that, pending the establishment of such a Board, they should be assigned to the Department

¹ Chapters LI and LII.

of Public Instruction. But there would be no objection to the establishment of the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education as soon as the University of Dacca is founded but before the reconstruction of the University of Calcutta is taken in hand. Indeed, so far as Calcutta is concerned, there would be many advantages in thus approaching the problem.

30. If however, as in the third case contemplated above, it were decided that the reconstruction of the University of Calcutta should be undertaken before the establishment of the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, the Act reconstituting the University of Calcutta should retain in the hands of the University, as regards the whole area within its jurisdiction, the responsibility of conducting the above-mentioned examinations and of granting recognition to high English schools until such time as in Bengal a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education shall have been established with a view to taking over these functions and until in Assam and Burma such arrangements have been made for this purpose as may seem expedient to the Governments of those provinces. The Executive Commission of the University¹ should be directed by the Act to entrust these duties to a special committee, upon which the University of Dacca should have two representatives, and to delegate to this committee full powers in regard to the two examinations and to the recognition of schools. So far as Bengal is concerned, we suggest that, pending the establishment of the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, the Government should appoint an advisory committee on this branch of education and should include in its membership representatives of non-academic experience. This advisory committee and the committee appointed by the University should be instructed by the authorities respectively appointing them to work in close association; and with this end in view it is desirable that the committees should have some members in common. The case of Assam presents its own difficulties for which we think that the local administration would readily find a solution, but the change in the administration of the matriculation and intermediate examinations should take place in that province simultaneously with the change in Bengal. In Burma the whole position will be transformed by the establishment of the new

¹ Chapter XXXIV.

University in that province, and we hope that this may be found possible at an early date.

III.—Proposed duties and powers of the new authority.

31. We shall now consider the duties which will devolve upon the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education for Bengal and the range of executive responsibility which it would be necessary to assign to it. It has been shown above that the Board must determine the courses of study in the institutions which will give intermediate training and must conduct the examination which will come at the end of the intermediate course. It must also conduct the examination which will be taken by candidates in the highest class of the high English schools and will admit those who are successful in passing it to the courses of intermediate training. Furthermore it is necessary that the Board should exercise another function, namely, that of determining which of the high English schools should have the privilege of presenting candidates for the examination corresponding to what is now called the matriculation. But these duties cannot be divorced from other and wider responsibilities without setting up a complicated system of divided control which, besides being unnecessarily expensive, would be harassing to the schools and colleges and certain to lead to delays and friction in administration. This is clearly shown by a closer consideration of the nature of the work which the Board would have to undertake.

32. Its work will fall into two main divisions, inseparable from one another but nevertheless so distinct as to admit of separate description, *viz.*, that concerned with the intermediate courses and examinations and that concerned with the high English schools. As regards the first, the conduct of the new intermediate examination will present considerable difficulties. In point of the number of candidates it will be upon a smaller scale than the matriculation, but it should be brought into a much closer relation to the teaching than is the case with the intermediate examination which it will replace. This improved method of examination, which we shall describe in later paragraphs of this chapter, will entail the employment of a large staff of visiting examiners who should be in the service of the Board and be wholly at its disposal, at any rate during

the part of the year in which the examination will be in progress. These visiting examiners would among them go for two or three days in every year to each of the institutions giving intermediate training. They would inspect the teaching in the different branches of instruction, each visiting examiner taking the subject or subjects of which he has made a special study. They would report to the Board upon the efficiency of the instruction as well as upon the attainments of individual candidates. The Board would thus be informed of the qualifications and competence of the teachers and of the influence of its regulations upon the standard of the work done in the institutions concerned.

33. Now it is obvious that the authority which thus conducts the intermediate examination will be in the best possible position to decide which of the institutions giving intermediate training are doing their work efficiently and should continue to enjoy recognition. To hand over to a second authority the duty of reporting on the efficiency of the intermediate institutions would be wasteful and would lead to unnecessary duplication of inspection as, by care in the selection of the visiting examiners and in framing the instructions given to them, it would be possible to secure from them general reports bearing upon the administrative as well as the educational efficiency of the institutions concerned. Clearly the best arrangement would be to put into the hands of one and the same authority the duty of conducting the examinations, of reporting upon the general efficiency of the institutions, and of deciding whether recognition should be given to a proposed new institution for intermediate training. A division of these duties between two authorities would inevitably produce conflict of jurisdiction and waste of public money. The Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, which must conduct the examinations *in situ*, should therefore be entrusted with the other duties also.

34. By reason of its intimate knowledge of the work of the intermediate institutions, the Board will be the authority best qualified to determine what grants should be given, out of public funds voted for the purpose, to recognised intermediate institutions under non-Governmental management. And, as the body most familiar with what is required in intermediate education in order to meet the needs of students in Bengal, the Board will also be better fitted than any other authority to undertake the responsibility for staffing

and maintaining those of the intermediate institutions which will be the property of Government. The duties of recognising intermediate institutions as efficient, of planning their courses of instruction, of conducting their examinations, of inspecting and guiding their work, and of assigning to them the grants from public funds which may be needed to secure their adequate staffing and equipment are so intermixed and dependent upon one another that it would be wise to entrust them all to one body. A partition of these duties between two co-ordinate authorities would be artificial and embarrassing. In practice, before deciding what courses of study it would be possible to prescribe with any assurance of educational success, the Board would need to know whether the institutions concerned would receive from public funds the assistance necessary to enable them to provide the proper staff and equipment. It would be well therefore that the same authority should have in its hands the duty of fixing the courses and of apportioning (within limits determined by Government) the grants upon which the effective organisation of those courses would depend. Again, it would be desirable that each intermediate institution should look for recognition and aid to the authority which framed its courses and conducted its examinations. Otherwise it would be harassed by communications and orders from two departments which might not be in full agreement upon educational aims. Even if the two authorities acted in unbroken harmony, there would be unnecessary trouble and expense. If, on the other hand, there were disagreement or friction between them, the welfare and progress of a vitally important part of public education would be retarded. We have considered the arguments which may be urged in favour of dividing the responsibility between two authorities and consider that they have little weight as compared with those in favour of unified administration. The Board will be as well fitted as any department to manage the Government institutions for intermediate training. The members of the Government educational services who serve on the staffs of those institutions would be lent to the Board and their position under it would be as secure as under the Department of Public Instruction. The arrangements which we shall propose in a later section of this chapter for the better staffing of the intermediate colleges would be as conveniently entrusted to the Board as to any other authority. And, so far from being relieved from difficulties by having to divide its

responsibilities for intermediate education with another authority, the Board would be embarrassed at every stage of its work by the resulting conflict of jurisdictions. We recommend therefore that in the sphere of intermediate education the Board should have full responsibility for superintending all the work of all the institutions of this grade.

35. But the administrative problem with which we are here concerned is not limited to the sphere of intermediate education. The duty of granting recognition to high English schools and of conducting the examination (corresponding to the present matriculation) which will come at the end of their course must appertain to the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education because the Board will inherit those duties from the University. The question arises therefore whether the Board should also be charged with the duty of laying down regulations for the high English schools, of managing those which are the property of Government, of apportioning among the aided schools the public funds available for the assistance of their work, and of giving guidance to them by a system of inspection. The alternative would be to retain these duties in the hands of the Department of Public Instruction. Here again there are decisive reasons in favour of avoiding any division of responsibility between two central authorities, each exercising administrative functions in the same grade of public education. The Board which would have the duty of recognising new high English schools and of withdrawing recognition from those which show themselves unworthy of continuing to enjoy that privilege must, if its work is to be well done, keep itself intimately acquainted with the state of those schools in general and with the standard which it is practicable to enforce in regard to their teaching and equipment. Its responsibility would be unreal if, in order to arrive at a decision whether it should grant recognition or withhold it to a school, it had to rely wholly upon the reports made by another authority. Further, before deciding what changes it would be expedient to make in the examination corresponding to the present matriculation, the Board would require to have full knowledge of the teaching power of the staffs of the schools and of the equipment possessed by the latter, in order that it might judge what changes in the rules of the examination would be salutary and efficacious. Yet again, the Board would find that the advisability of insisting upon new requirements in the examination (as for example in science)

depended upon the capacity of the schools to improve their staffs of teachers and to provide laboratory accommodation for practical work. But, if all responsibility for the allocation of aid from public funds lay with another authority, the Board would not be in a position to guarantee to the schools the increased assistance which would be necessary to enable them to comply with new examination requirements. This would deprive it of a power necessary to full efficiency in its work and might lead either to the postponement of important reforms in the examination or to the imposition of new requirements upon schools financially unprepared to meet the expenditure entailed by them. We think therefore that the wiser course would be to entrust to the Board full responsibility for the administration of all Government high English schools and for determining the conditions upon which grants-in-aid should be given to high schools under non-Governmental management. Under any other arrangement there would be waste of public money through divided jurisdiction and duplicated inspection, as well as delay in administration through dual control.

36. We recommend therefore that it should be the duty of the Board to submit annually to the Government of Bengal a budget estimate of the sums required during the ensuing financial year for secondary and intermediate education in the Presidency, and in particular the heads of additional expenditure required. The Government would then decide how much could be afforded from public revenues for these purposes. The detailed expenditure of the various sums assigned each year by the Government for high English schools, for intermediate institutions and for other purposes should be left to the discretion of the Board, subject to such conditions as the Government might think well to attach to it, as for example a requirement that not less than a certain proportion of a specific assignment should be devoted to a specific purpose such as the improvement of educational facilities for Musalmans. The Board would be responsible for the upkeep and staffing of such intermediate institutions as were the property of Government and also of the Government high English schools. It would make grants-in-aid to those intermediate institutions and high English schools which were under non-Governmental management. The public would feel that secondary and intermediate education was in the care of an

authority intimately acquainted with the needs of Bengal and determined to improve and enlarge its educational opportunities. The Government would be able to rely upon the knowledge and experience of the Board. And the Member or Minister in charge of education would have its assistance in dealing with one of the most difficult and important parts of the problem of national education. The Board, as we propose it, would be one section of a reorganised education department—a department very unlike the present department in its constitution and powers but much better adapted to the work of enlisting public opinion in the cause of educational progress. The Director of Public Instruction would *ex officio* be a member of the Board ; but we think that, if the proposals made in paragraph 16 above are accepted, he should not be its chairman. It is desirable that he should be relieved so far as possible from detailed administrative work in order that he may act as chief of the general staff to the Member or Minister in charge of education. So far from weakening the authority of the Director of Public Instruction, the plan which we propose would give him increased opportunities of influence and would go a long way towards identifying the educational reorganisation of the State with the best and most responsible elements in public opinion.

37. It is for these reasons that in view of the special needs of Bengal we do not hesitate to recommend the adoption of the plan of a Board in preference to that form of organisation which has been adopted in the English Board of Education. The latter is in practice a body of permanent officials graded in a hierarchy of ranks and acting under the orders of a minister who is a member of a Government which is responsible to Parliament. In England however the most influential of the secondary schools are wealthy foundations which, though they do not any longer stand outside the system of public education, are virtually independent and could resist successfully any action of the Board of Education which threatened their freedom of initiative. In Bengal there are no Indian educational institutions which correspond to those great endowed schools and could maintain their independence against mistaken interference on the part of a body of officials. The safeguard of public opinion therefore, which in English administration is in part secured by the virtual autonomy of the great secondary schools, must be provided for in some other way in the adminis-

tration of secondary education in Bengal. It will be secured by entrusting the supervision of secondary education to a representative Board which will have the advantage of being in close relation to the Government and of commanding the services of a body of trained permanent officials. Another circumstance makes the problem of educational administration in Bengal very unlike that which presents itself in England. In Bengal the local educational authorities are weak and have little influence in higher secondary education. In England they are very strong and neutralise any tendency towards excessive centralisation of educational control. There should therefore be in the educational administration of Bengal some influence which will serve as a makeweight against the otherwise preponderating influence of a central body of officials. We believe that such a makeweight will be found in the authority of the representative Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education set in the framework of the central administration.

38. We have accordingly now to consider the constitutional relation in which the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education would stand to the Government of Bengal. The Board which we think it necessary to propose would be of a composite and representative character. It would be a powerful agency of public opinion. Some of its members would be appointed by the universities without interference from Government. A majority of the Board would be non-officials, and therefore in no way under direct Governmental control. A Board of this character seems to us indispensable in the conditions which prevail in Bengal, and to be the only kind of new central authority for intermediate and secondary education to which the important powers now exercised by the University in regard to intermediate training and the recognition of schools can be transferred without arousing serious controversy and opposition. But we are aware that we are proposing a form of central authority which has at present no exact counterpart either in India or in the West. We are bound therefore to explore its relations to Government in order that precautions may be taken against any risk of deadlock in the practical execution of our plan.

39. Though it is desirable that the Board should enjoy freedom to act upon its own responsibility in framing and enforcing the

regulations which it may find necessary for the welfare of secondary and intermediate education, it must be ultimately responsible to the Government of the country ; and, in the event of a final disagreement between it and the Government, the will of the latter must prevail. Our plan reduces to a minimum the likelihood of such disagreement. Each year the Board would submit its financial estimates to Government, and the latter would have the opportunity of withholding its assent from any proposals which did not meet with its approval. The regulations of the Board would be published and would therefore come within the cognisance of the Government and of the Legislative Council and be open to criticism from either body. Such criticism would naturally carry great weight with the Board. Therefore, though the latter would rightly exercise its own judgment in deciding the difficult educational problems which would fall within its scope, the likelihood of its coming into conflict with Government upon grave questions of public importance is remote. But if such a contingency should ever arise, the Government should have power of overruling the Board. Such action however should follow a procedure which would mark the gravity of the situation and bring the question at issue before the public and its representatives. We recommend therefore that the Government should have the power after due inquiry to require as an extreme measure the resignation of the Board ; but that, if this step is ever taken, it should be necessary for the Government immediately to lay before the Legislative Council for its consideration and discussion the papers showing fully the matters in which the Government and the Board were in disagreement and the reasons which had led the Government to require the Board's resignation.

IV.—The conduct of the intermediate college examination.

40. We shall now describe the method which we recommend for adoption by the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education in conducting the examination at the end of the intermediate course.¹ It is desirable that each candidate should have an opportunity of showing his knowledge and ability not only in a written test but also under oral examination. We suggest that 'visiting

¹ The courses which would be given to the Intermediate Colleges are described in Chapter XXXII.

examiners, chosen in view of the different subjects of the curriculum taken in the institution concerned, should be sent annually to each intermediate college in one or more groups at convenient times during the closing months of the academic year. The examination of the candidates should consist of two parts, the one oral, the other written. To each part, in those subjects in which both oral and written examination are required, a due proportion of marks should be assigned. In order to pass the examination in any such subject a candidate should be required to reach a certain level of excellence in each part. The note-books of the students should be preserved for inspection and should be open to examination by the visiting examiners at the time of their visit. In English an oral as well as a written examination should be required in the case of every candidate. In each branch of physical science, there should be for every candidate not only a written examination but also a practical and oral examination in the laboratory. Similarly in subjects introductory to medicine, engineering and agriculture there should be a practical examination conducted *in situ* by a visiting examiner of the Board as well as a written examination. Each candidate taking teaching as one of his subjects should, besides submitting to written examination, take a class in the presence of the visiting examiner. The written part of the examination in all subjects should be conducted by means of papers, prepared by a Board of Examiners acting under the authority of the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, the papers in each subject being normally the same for all the intermediate colleges.¹

41. Such a method of examination would encourage greater proficiency in the speaking of English ; would attest the quality of the work done by students throughout their course ; and, in some subjects at any rate, would tend to relieve the pressure of the written test.

42. The examination would be taken by each candidate in one of a number of groups, the latter being preparatory to a variety of callings. If passed upon conditions approved by the university, it would entitle the successful candidate to admission to a course of study for a degree. It would give admission to

¹ The written examination should be held as nearly as possible at the end of the college year, the oral examination as a rule preceding the written.

professional schools in engineering and agriculture, and would qualify for entrance to competitive examination for certain grades of Government service. A public authority enjoying the highest prestige, aided by the best expert knowledge in the country, intimately associated with Government and able to speak with the support of the two universities of Calcutta and Dacca would alone be competent to conduct an examination of such crucial importance alike to the individual candidates and to the public interests of Bengal. Moreover the mode in which such an examination should be conducted would entail expense beyond the resources even of the two universities acting together and still more beyond those of any other institution in the country.

43. We estimate that, in order to meet the needs of the whole Presidency, courses of intermediate training would have to be provided in, say, from thirty to forty intermediate colleges conveniently distributed throughout Bengal, including Calcutta.¹ Some of these colleges would be self-contained; others, developments of existing high schools. There is good precedent for giving the title of college to institutions engaged in the work of higher secondary education. In the West some of the most famous schools which train boys up to this stage are called colleges; for example, Winchester and Eton among the ancient foundations; Marlborough, Haileybury and Clifton, among the new. In order to conduct the examinations required at the close of the courses given in these colleges, the services of a considerable number of visiting examiners will be required. We doubt indeed whether, in view of the number of candidates and the variety of the courses which the colleges will offer, it would be possible to conduct the examination properly during the short period of time available for the purpose with a total staff of less than from thirty to forty visiting examiners.

44. We have considered the question of the name which should be given to this examination and suggest that it should be called the Intermediate College Examination. This title would best signify its place in the educational system and would preserve some continuity with the name of the present intermediate examination which it will replace.

45. It will be seen that the general character of the *Intermediate College Examination* which we propose would be in accord with that approved by the Government of India as most advantageously combining the advantages of oral and written examination.¹ The introduction of this method of examination will, we believe, have a healthy influence upon higher secondary education in Bengal and conduce to greater variety and interest in the methods of teaching. It is a more costly form of examination than that which consists in written papers alone. It calls for great skill and tact on the part of the visiting examiners who will conduct the oral examinations. But the concentration of intermediate training in a comparatively small number of institutions will make possible the adoption of this improved plan of examination with every hope of success.

V.—The conduct of the high school examination.

46. The other examination for the conduct of which the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education will be responsible is that which will be taken by candidates at the end of the course in the high English schools and will therefore correspond to the present matriculation. It can no longer be called by that name as it will not admit successful candidates to the University. We propose that under the new conditions it should be called the *High School Examination*. This name will clearly mark its place in the educational system of Bengal.

47. A few high schools (and we hope that their number will increase) may ask that in their case the examination should be conducted upon a plan similar to that recommended for adoption in the case of the intermediate college examination. Such a request would be not unlikely to come from a high school to which an intermediate college was attached. We are of opinion that the Board should grant this privilege to a limited number of schools in recognition of their special excellence as places of education. Under such an arrangement, the examination would be partly oral, partly written. The school would be visited, at some time during the three months preceding the examination, by a group of visiting examiners, sufficiently large to conduct with expert knowledge an oral examination of the candi-

¹ Resolution on Educational Policy, 1913. See Chapter IV, para. 33 of this report.

dates in each group of studies—languages, mathematics, history, geography and science. The visiting examiners would examine the note-books and exercises written by the pupils during the preceding school year or two school years; they would review the methods followed by the teachers in the general course of introduction to science; they would conduct in the laboratories a practical test of candidates offering specific subjects in science¹; they would examine the work done in the manual-training course; they would report generally upon the organisation of the school and upon its methods of teaching; and they might also (if such an arrangement were thought advisable by the Board or by the school itself) take into account the reports made by the teachers upon the work of individual candidates. In addition to this, the candidates would be required at the time of the general written examination to take in all compulsory subjects the same papers as those set to the other schools; but we think that in non-compulsory subjects a written examination, taken at the time of the visit of the visiting examiners and combined with an oral test, should relieve the candidates from that part of the later examination. There should also be an oral test in spoken English, success in it being recorded separately from the results of the compulsory written examination in English. Candidates who had thus undergone an oral examination by visiting examiners should, if successful in the high school examination as a whole, receive a distinctive certificate, upon which should be recorded the subjects in which they had submitted to an oral as well as to a written test, and the fact that they had taken the examination from a privileged school.

48. It will be observed that the conditions under which such an examination would be held must in some respects be more stringent than those of the ordinary form of high school examination. On the other hand, the candidates would have the advantage of taking their non-compulsory subjects slightly in advance of the ordinary examination. But, in spite of this advantage, the examination taken under such conditions would be more exacting than the ordinary examination. Success in it would therefore deserve a distinctive certificate which would also signify that the candidate had been taught in a school commended for the special excellence of its work and organisation. We believe that the intro-

¹ Para. 70 (4) (f) below.

duction of this alternative method of conducting the high school examination would be a valuable corrective to the tendency of all very large systems of written examination to become mechanical in their methods and to repress individuality in methods of teaching. The bestowal of the privilege of this distinctive form of examination would be a suitable acknowledgment of the special excellence of a school. The hope of obtaining the privilege would be an incentive to many others. The withdrawal of it should be the penalty attached to a decline from the high standard of excellence previously reached.

49. So great would be the advantage of thus conducting the high school examination that it might be expected that we should propose its general introduction in the case of all high English schools. Our reasons for not doing so are that (1) the majority of schools are not prepared for a test so exacting; (2) the methods of conducting an oral examination by visiting examiners need to be matured gradually by experience and will more advantageously be applied by slow degrees; and (3) administrative difficulties make its immediate adoption impossible on a large scale. Some of these difficulties are especially serious in Bengal. To these administrative difficulties further reference is required.

50. There are more than 700 high schools now recognised in Bengal. In order to conduct an examination, partly oral, partly written, upon the plan which we have suggested for adoption in all intermediate colleges and in a very limited number of high English schools, it would be necessary for the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education to send to each of these 700 schools a group of not less than three visiting examiners for a period of at least two days, and (where the number of candidates was large) for three days. In the great majority of schools it would not be possible to throw upon the present staff of teachers the responsibility of conducting the examination under the supervision of one visiting examiner. The work must be done by persons holding an independent position. And it would be impracticable to propose that in each school one visiting examiner should conduct oral and written examinations in all the subjects prescribed, because his special studies and experience would not qualify him for work so extensive in range and requiring so many branches of special knowledge for its proper and discriminating completion.

Moreover, one of the advantages of the plan lies in the advice and help which an experienced teacher, acting as visiting examiner, would be able to give in the schools thus visited to the teachers of the subjects of which he had special knowledge. It would not be possible for one man to give this practical help and guidance in a range of subjects so various as languages, mathematics, science, history and geography. Another condition of the problem is that, if a system of a combined oral and written examination were at once universally applied, these groups of visiting examiners would have to visit all the 700 schools every year (because there would every year be a new crop of candidates, each requiring individual examination) within the three months preceding the date of the general written examination common to all the candidates. A school would be put at a serious disadvantage if its pupils had to take the oral (and part of the written) examination some months before the date at which the same test would be applied to other schools. Hence it would be necessary for the central authority to send out, during a period not exceeding three months or at most 78 working days, visiting examiners (generally in groups of not less than three) to conduct examinations at more than 700 schools, each school requiring on an average a visit extending over at least two days. The wide distances which separate the schools and the slowness of communication throughout the greater part of Bengal would double the time needed for many of these visitations. Careful calculation shows that more than 100 visiting examiners would be required for the work. As the conduct of oral examinations, combined with investigation of pupils' notebooks and the giving of advice to teachers in methods of teaching, is a work requiring special experience and other qualifications, and has not hitherto been practised in Bengal, we are persuaded that it would not be possible to command in the first instance the services of so large a body of visiting examiners for these duties. Apart from the expense which an undertaking on so large a scale would involve, the need for accumulating experience by slow degrees for the development of this new method of examination points in our judgment to the advisability of a more gradual transition from the present methods of conducting this examination.

51. For all high English schools, therefore, except for a limited number distinguished by special excellence, we propose that the

plan of holding a general written examination as the sole test should be continued. Possibly it might be found convenient to divide the Presidency for the purposes of this examination into a few large areas.¹ The examiners resident in each area might find it more practicable to meet at some centre in the area than to travel to Calcutta. But under such an arrangement it would be necessary to have a revising and moderating committee of examiners at headquarters. For the conduct of the examination under the new conditions which we propose, the Board would doubtless wish to avail itself of the services of university teachers, from whose ranks the examiners have been drawn in the past. The experience of head masters of secondary schools, and members of their staff would also be of value to the Board in marking the papers, arrangements being made for their not seeing beforehand the papers of questions set in the examination.

VI.—The requirements of the high school examination.

52. We now turn to the consideration of the changes which it is desirable to make in the requirements of this examination, which will replace the present matriculation and will qualify successful candidates for admission not to the University but to courses of intermediate training. The statistics justify the assumption that a little over three-quarters of those who may pass the high school examination will proceed to intermediate courses. The average age at which candidates now pass the matriculation is about 18½ years. With improved teaching in the high English schools this average will be considerably reduced. Ultimately the great majority of the candidates should be ready to pass the examination between sixteen and seventeen years of age, and the most promising should pass in their sixteenth year.

53. Our witnesses are almost unanimous in urging that the course leading up to what is now called the matriculation examination should comprise a wider range of compulsory subjects. Their view is that it should not allow any candidate to ignore history or geography; that its regulations should provide for all the pupils having received some introduction to natural science; and that it should not, as at present, be so specialised as to divert the attention of school authorities and of teachers from

¹ Chapter XL, paras. 47-49.

many aspects of that liberal training which should be given to all pupils in secondary schools up to 15½ or 16 years of age.¹

54. What those who advocate a widening of the scope of the present matriculation really desire is a broader outlook affecting the whole course of school-work, a more generous conception of what secondary education should offer, and an awakening of the pupils' minds in directions which the schools under existing conditions generally neglect. But it is clear that these improvements would not necessarily (or, in present circumstances, probably) be secured by the simple expedient of making a few additions to the list of obligatory subjects in the examination and certainly not by prescribing two or three more examination papers for which the memorising of a text-book might be sufficient preparation. Evidently it is not merely an extension of the compulsory subjects in the examination but a change in the outlook and methods of the school that is needed if the intelligence of the pupils is to be more skilfully developed, if their powers of observation are to be quickened and trained and if they are to receive a wise introduction to natural science. What is involved in the demand for a wider range of knowledge at the age of sixteen is nothing less than a substantial improvement in the staffing and equipment of the secondary schools.

55. A large number of our witnesses think that the age at which a candidate is allowed to enter for what is now called the matriculation examination should be less rigidly fixed than is the case under the present rules.² It is urged that a test such as this should have regard to the stage of mental development reached by an intending candidate, not merely to his age as measured by the calendar. When, in the judgment of those who have taught them, candidates are ripe for the examination and when by promotion from class to class they have reached that point in the school from which the examination is appropriately taken, admission to the test should (it is urged) not be refused to them. The evidence shows that, even under present conditions, when the average age of passing the examination is nearly eighteen years and a half, the age limit of sixteen is in many cases a serious obstacle to a pupil's progress. A considerable number of promising boys are kept back and waste many valuable

¹ Chapter IX, paras. 37-41 ; Chapter X, paras. 24-25.

² Chapter IX, paras. 88-99.

months in going over for a second or even for a third time work which they have already done. The new regulations which we shall propose for the examination are designed to provide a test of the individual capacity and attainments of pupils who have completed the course at a high English school. There is every reason to hope that, when the teaching in those schools has been improved, an average pupil will be able to finish the course at about sixteen and a half or seventeen years of age. Some pupils of exceptional promise will be ready for the examination by fifteen and a half. We recommend that, with the approval of the head master of the school, a candidate whose age is not less than fifteen on the first day of the month in which the examination is held should be allowed to present himself for it.

There are grounds for fearing that, if under present conditions the age limit were wholly abrogated, some teachers would be exposed to pressure from parents wishing their boys to be crammed up in examination subjects to the prejudice of their general education. We rely upon regular inspection and upon the improved conditions of work in the schools as safeguards against any prevalence of this evil under the less rigid regulations which we propose.

56. Each school should be expected to present for the high school examination the whole number of the pupils in the class in which that examination may be taken, and the Board should call for an explanation from the head master of the school if any appreciable number of the pupils in that class are not presented. This will prevent an unfair amount of attention being given to some of the pupils to the disadvantage of the rest. It will also deter the schools from promoting boys prematurely to the highest class. The purpose of the examination is twofold (1) to test the attainments of individual pupils, (2) to ascertain the standard reached by the class as a whole at this stage. The second of these purposes is defeated when only a selected number of pupils, chosen out of the class, are presented for the examination.

57. We recommend that geography (including physical geography) should be added to the list of compulsory subjects to be taken in the examination. This branch of study is indispensable to a good general education. But, in this subject as in all others, what is really needed is that it should be intelligently

taught. For this we are aware that an order making it compulsory in the examination will in itself be no guarantee. The true reform, the only reform which will improve the schools, is to improve the teachers. No adequate remedy for the defects in secondary education will be found unless all the schools come under the supervision of a representative central authority able to help them with funds and guidance, and to enforce proper standards of payment to teachers and of educational efficiency.

58. The teaching of science is almost entirely neglected in the secondary schools of Bengal. There are some lessons about nature in the lower classes, and mechanics is taken as a matriculation subject in a few schools but is often not effectually taught. With these exceptions, however, science is omitted from the course of study.

59. We think it necessary that the teaching of science should be introduced into every secondary school in Bengal and that some study of science should be part of the education of every pupil. At present the course of training is, in too preponderating a degree, bookish. The wider outlook which can be imparted by the skilful teaching of science, especially in questions of public health, is much to be desired. Practical work and the training of the hand are at present neglected and can be combined with the teaching of science. Under present conditions a good deal of scientific ability is left undeveloped and is perhaps permanently lost to the community. The increasing importance of technology, and the enlargement of university studies with a view to training recruits for scientific callings (as well as the provision of some technical training among the courses which we recommend for the intermediate colleges) make it necessary that the course of study in the high English schools should give the pupils some of the groundwork of scientific knowledge and at an early stage turn the thoughts of those of them who have scientific aptitude towards these branches of study. Furthermore, as scientific questions will certainly play an increasingly important part in public administration and in the agriculture and industry of Bengal, it is expedient that those who in future will be charged with responsible duties in Government service, in the management of estates and in industrial affairs should acquire at school some knowledge of elementary science and of its methods and terminology.

60. An illuminating introduction to science is the chief desideratum, though not easy to secure. We hope that one of the services which the departments of education in the Universities of Calcutta and Dacca will render to the community may be the training, in concert with the scientific departments, of a large number of teachers who will bring this educational influence into the secondary schools.¹ The stimulating power and intellectual value of scientific teaching in the schools will depend upon its being found possible to secure in sufficient numbers teachers who have a wide knowledge of science and the trained gift of imparting interest in it. Given the right type of teacher, the influence of the study of science in schools is great upon the mind of the pupils and may develop and fortify important elements in character. To achieve these results, a gifted and resourceful teacher requires, in the earlier stages of instruction, only simple materials and inexpensive equipment. The teaching of geography, including physical geography, is an indispensable part of the introduction to science which we think that all the pupils in secondary schools should receive. It entails in its earlier stages no very costly illustrations and apparatus, and indeed is most valuable when the pupils themselves under guidance make some of the models and maps which illustrate the lessons they receive. Again, in the study of living things, which should form a substantial part of the course of science in schools, the teacher can find in the plants and animals of the district most of the material which he and his pupils need for observation and description. It is true that laboratory accommodation and somewhat costly equipment are necessary to the more systematic instruction in the elements of physics and chemistry which, for some at any rate of its pupils, a well-organised secondary school should provide. But, as is shown by the experience of several colleges in Bengal and elsewhere, the expense of such equipment may be reduced by careful purchase and to some extent by the use of simple appliances made on the spot. Furthermore, the educational value of demonstration lessons (which a teacher can train his pupils to help him in preparing) should not be underrated.

61. But in the earlier stages of education everywhere the kind of scientific teaching which it is of fundamental importance, though most difficult, to secure is that which by vivid description opens

¹ Chapter XLIII and Chapter XXXIII, paras 130-134.

the minds of children to the significance of life and its environment; which shews them by guidance and suggestion how to use their eyes; which trains them to observe accurately, to mark what is significant, to describe in words what they actually see, and to draw correctly such inferences as are within their power; which so plans its courses and chooses its topics as to give some insight into the unity of nature; which, by simple illustrations from the history of discovery, makes clear to those who are themselves beginners through how many stages of conjecture and of patient verification a theory has to pass before it can reach the simplicity of an accepted general law; which teaches the laws of health; and which aims at kindling a love of nature and of science, at forming a habit of observation and reflexion, and at initiating the mind into the processes of scientific investigation, rather than at fixing upon it ready-made the clear-cut conclusions of older minds or at loading the memory with knowledge which the learner himself has not actively made his own.

62. But this kind of teaching does not lend itself well to the test of a written examination. Its value lies in the interest which it kindles, in the turn which it gives to thought. Its operations are necessarily slow. It cannot quickly produce its best and most permanent effects. It is the antithesis of cramming. Its earlier stages are exceedingly important, yet in those stages its results cannot well be concentrated in a form which lends itself to test by a written examination.

63. How far therefore under existing conditions in Bengal, and under those likely to prevail within the next ten years, it is desirable to test the elementary science teaching by means of a compulsory written examination is a matter in regard to which it is natural that there should be some difference of opinion. There are strong reasons in favour of making an examination compulsory. In Question 9, sub-section (ii) (c) we asked for the opinion of witnesses in regard to the possibility of reducing the rigidity of the examination system by exempting particular subjects or sections of subjects from test by a formal examination; and in Chapter XVII¹ we have discussed the evidence on this question. The general tendency of that evidence is to show that both at the University and in the schools a subject in which no examination is held,

¹ Paras. 160-167.

although compulsory as part of the curriculum, will be neglected. Dr. Brajendranath Seal writes :—

“ This distinction between subjects for teaching and subjects for examination was what the framers of the new regulations had in mind in omitting English history from the matriculation curriculum and making geography and Indian history optional. The laboratory courses in physics, chemistry and other science subjects in the intermediate curriculum were treated similarly. The latter arrangement has worked fairly well, the former has broken down.”¹

In regard to English history in the schools, Dr. Seal regards the result as disastrous. Mr. W. C. Wordsworth, Officiating Director of Public Instruction, says :—“ Without some kind of examination there would be no incentive to work ; as matters are in Bengal, subjects not examined in are neglected by both teachers and students, nor is there likely to be any early change in this respect.”² Mr. J. W. Gunn, Assistant Director of Public Instruction, says that the suggestion if carried into effect “ would merely extend the evils already prevalent in the schools, namely, the general neglect of all non-examination subjects.”² The evidence of several Indian witnesses, especially that of Mr. Benoy Kumar Sen and Mr. Raj Mohan Sen, is equally emphatic. “ Our students, as they now are,” writes the latter, “ will not seriously study any subject in which they are not to be examined.” Some of our witnesses think that at the university stage it might in some cases be advantageous to prescribe a subject as part of the obligatory course of study without enforcing examination in it. But no opinion has been expressed in favour of adopting this arrangement at the school stage.

64. Certain passages in the recently issued report of the Committee on ‘ the position of Natural Science in the educational system of Great Britain,’ of which Sir J. J. Thomson was Chairman, bear directly upon this question. The Committee write :—

“ We consider that it is essential that every boy should be required to satisfy the examiners both in science and in mathematics, subject to the generous

¹ Question 9. In the years 1916, 1917 and 1918 history was taken in the matriculation examination by 8,546, 8,744 and 7,122 candidates respectively ; geography by 2,382, 2,602 and 2,644. It would be incorrect to infer that the number of pupils who have learnt geography at any stage in their school-course is limited to those who present this subject in the matriculation examination. But the teaching of geography in schools has been retarded by the somewhat exacting requirements as to equipment which are imposed or recognition in this subject.

² Question 9.

application of the principle of compensation hereinafter mentioned. In many boys' schools the teaching of mathematics throughout the school is much more developed than that of science and there will, if science is not required, be a tendency to concentrate on mathematics and to neglect the teaching of science. If teachers and boys know that, while it is necessary to pass in English subjects and in a foreign language, the omission of either mathematics or science does not involve failure in the examination, it is quite safe to predict that one or other of these subjects will receive less attention; and the subject which is the more costly to equip, and in some ways the more difficult to teach, is likely to be the one which will suffer.

To make any subject compulsory in an examination in order to guard against its neglect is not the ideal method of obtaining the best education, but in the present condition of affairs it seems to be the most efficacious means we can find.

* * * * *

It is proposed in some quarters that 'in inspected schools boys should be certified by the science master as having taken a proper course and reached a satisfactory standard in science.' But we have had no satisfactory reason presented to us for the treatment of science in a different way from all other school subjects in respect to examinations, and even if such ground were shown we should still find it impossible to recommend the adoption of this plan. The inequalities of experience among teachers would render it almost impossible to attain any common standard of judgment.

It has also been suggested that inspection alone might suffice. There is, however, an essential difference between the tests provided by inspections and examination. Inspection tests the character of the curriculum, the adequacy of equipment, the competence of the staff, and the general efficiency of the work of the form; it shows what opportunities the school gives to its pupils, but it is not primarily intended to be a test of attainment of individuals.

* * * * *

The examination (i.e., the first secondary school examination) should be regarded as a test of satisfactory work during the pupils' school course and should be of such a character that it can be taken without any special preparation which would interfere with that course. The work of each candidate in the examination should be regarded as a whole, and the principle of compensation should be recognised both between the different groups and the different subjects of the same group. By this we mean that comparative weakness in one part of the examination should not necessarily involve failure if the candidate has done really good work in other parts.

We recommend that in the first examination there should be as close co-operation as possible between teachers and examiners. Not only should the examination be adapted to the curriculum of the particular school, but great weight should be attached to the teacher's estimate of the merits of the pupils and to their school record. An examination conducted on these lines would not have the effect often ascribed to external examinations of cramping the curriculum but would permit of all reasonable freedom of teaching.

Nor could it be fairly said to discourage either wide variation in types of curricula or liberty for educational requirements.

* * * * *

Some of the defects of school courses are ascribed to the influence of external examinations in limiting the freedom of the teacher to choose his material and to treat it in the way suitable to local conditions or the special needs of his form. In all examinations, especially if they are competitive, there is a tendency to set questions of such a character that there would be no serious difference between the marking of different examiners. In an examination in elementary science the questions on general principles are admittedly more difficult to mark than those which are of the nature of little sums, such, for example, as to calculate the change in temperature when a piece of hot metal is dropped into a vessel of water. The result of this is that the questions tend to concentrate on a limited range of subjects, which are not of the highest educational value, and in which the majority of students find but little to interest them.

But examinations cannot be blamed for all the faults which have been pointed out to us ; it seems certain that a great part of the difficulty arises from the fact that the teachers, from lack of training and of knowledge of the methods of other teachers, tend to go on teaching as they were taught themselves, and thus the work becomes stereotyped.

* * * * *

The very last thing which we should wish is to lay down a hard-and-fast rule which would stereotype science teaching throughout the country. We think it essential that the teacher should be allowed as much freedom as possible in his choice of method and that he will probably get the best results with the one which he himself prefers. He should however realise that the power of settling for himself the particular course he adopts carries with it greater responsibility for seeing that it is the best which can be devised under the circumstances of the school."¹

65. It will be seen that the Committee regard freedom for the teacher as an essential part of their scheme. In an introductory passage they indicate their general aim.

"It ought not," they say, "to be beyond the wit of man to devise a scheme of education that will be durable, yet elastic ; a scheme that, while securing that every child should be equipped with a knowledge of science, will not cramp the teacher by a syllabus or even by a rigid tradition."²

It is plain however that to carry out in the 700 high English schools of Bengal examinations on the lines recommended by the British Science Committee would be impracticable within any reasonable time ; an examination in which an external examiner co-operated with the teachers and took account of school records would require a staff of examiners of a magnitude, and would involve an

¹ The foregoing passages are taken from paras. 34-36 and 46 of the report.

² Para. 3 of the report.

expenditure in fees, in travelling allowances and in time, that exceed what is possible.

66. High school education in Bengal is too bookish and literary ; and science, taught in an intelligent way, is necessary to counter-act this tendency. But between the threatening Scylla of neglect and the no less threatening Charybdis of misuse of the teaching of science it is not easy to choose. One of our number (Dr. Gregory) thinks that the whole effort to introduce science teaching into the high schools will be wasted unless examination pressure is applied and that under the new conditions such pressure will be more reasonably applied in the future than in the past. The majority of us are more disposed to leave the teachers and pupils freedom, though fully aware that freedom will mean neglect in many cases, in the belief that the teaching will on the whole be more fertile in its ultimate results than if it is cramped by a set syllabus. We feel that, in its application to science, especially in the case of beginners and immature students, the defects of the examination system, admitted in England, would be accentuated in India ; that precisely in dealing with this new subject, designed rather to stimulate and open the doors of the pupil's mind than to give at this stage instruction that will be of positive and practical use, it is desirable to give the teacher freedom to teach those portions of his subject in which he is most interested and in the way which interests him most ; and that he will be cramped by the examination syllabus ; but we feel still more that the examination paper, to a greater extent even than the syllabus, is likely to cramp the teaching and confine it to those points on which short cut-and-dried answers are possible ; answers that can be memorised without involving understanding, and calculations that can be carried out by rule of thumb ; in short, that the teaching, while it will nominally deal with ' science,' will in effect be unscientific, and more calculated to sterilise than to stimulate any real interest in the subject, so that money spent on equipment and teaching will be wasted or worse than wasted.

67. We are obliged therefore to recognise the fact that, under the conditions which prevail in the high schools in Bengal, it is not possible to deal with this matter in a wholly satisfactory way. We are unanimous in recommending that after a reasonable notice no pupil should be allowed to enter for the high school examina-

tion unless the head master or head mistress of the school certifies that the candidate has received a course of instruction in science extending over a period of at least two years. This would ensure the inclusion of science as a necessary part of the course of study leading up to the high school examination, and we suggest that the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education should issue for the guidance of teachers an illustrative outline of the course or courses which it would approve for the purpose. In those selected schools which may be allowed to have the high school examination conducted by visiting examiners, in the manner which we have recommended for the intermediate examination, the candidate's work in science should be examined partly *in situ* by means of an oral test, partly by a written examination, the latter being adjusted to the course of instruction given in the school laboratories and approved by the visiting examiners. But in the remaining schools we think that there should be no compulsory examination in science until the staff of teachers of this subject has been materially strengthened and until the necessary equipment for the practical teaching of science has been provided.

The plan of introducing a compulsory written examination in science might on paper seem to enforce the study of the subject more rigorously and in a manner to which pupils, teachers and school committees would be disposed to give more respectful attention. But we should prefer to rely upon the interest of science securing for it in due time the attention and prominence which it deserves, rather than to hand over to the even graver danger of cram a branch of study which cram would completely spoil. If under present conditions every high school in Bengal had to present its pupils for examination in science, the weak and inefficient schools would inevitably set the standard of examination. The work in the good schools would be hampered by this defect.

68. History is another subject which presents special difficulties from the point of view of compulsory examination in schools. We are unanimous in thinking that it should form part of the training given to all pupils in high English schools, and find that a very considerable number of our witnesses take this view. Unfortunately however the subject is in a great number of cases ill-taught, and the result of this inferior teaching is to deaden interest in history.

instead of quickening it. The remedy for this state of things must be slow. It can only be found in the work of a large number of teachers keenly interested in historical studies and trained to impart that interest to their pupils. We believe that the reorganisation of the University of Calcutta and the establishment of the University of Dacca will lead to a great development of historical studies in Bengal, and that the new departments of education which we propose for both universities will in due time send out into the schools a large body of teachers able to stimulate a love of history and to impart the habit of mind which is conducive to historical studies. The work of these teachers will gradually diffuse a new ideal of historical teaching through the schools, especially if their influence is organised through an historical association similar to that which has produced a great improvement in the teaching of history in English schools. The requirement of history as a necessary part of the course given to every pupil in the high English schools and insistence by the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education upon this subject having an important place in the curriculum throughout the school course will increase the demand for teachers of history and give those of them who have a keen interest in their subject an opportunity of improving the present methods of teaching it. A debateable question is whether this process of reform would be accelerated or retarded by making history a compulsory subject in the high school examination. A large number of our witnesses (52 in their answers to Question 8 and 36 in their answers to Question 13) recommend that it should be made compulsory. One of our number (Dr. Gregory) agrees with this view on grounds similar to those which lead him to a like judgment with regard to the teaching of science. The majority of us think that in present circumstances it would be wiser to remain content with a change which would make history a necessary and prominent part of the course of study in all high English schools; that the inclusion of the subject among the compulsory subjects of examination would under existing conditions only extend more widely the mechanical and uninspiring methods of teaching the subject which now prevail; that any real improvement of the present state of things must spring from the work of individual teachers; and that for this reason the teachers should be left as free as possible from the restrictions of an examination syllabus. Most of the teachers would no doubt make but little use of this freedom. But

the best of them would respond to the opportunity; and their influence, upon which the hope of improvement depends, would gradually spread.

69. We think it indispensable that the standard required in mathematics in the high school examination should be raised substantially above the level now permitted in the matriculation examination.

70. It will be convenient if we now summarise our proposals with regard to the examination which will take the place of the present matriculation. We recommend that it should be called the high school examination; that to pass this examination should be an indispensable condition to admission to an intermediate college; that it is highly desirable that each school should normally present for this examination all the pupils in its highest class and that the Board should call for an explanation from the head master if any appreciable number of the pupils in that class are not presented; that the standard of the examination should correspond to the stage which would normally be reached by a pupil in an efficient school at about sixteen years of age; that a candidate who in the ordinary course of promotion has reached the stage at which the examination is taken should be allowed to enter for it, if the head master so approves, provided that his age is not less than fifteen on the first day of the month in which the examination is held; and that, except in schools which are allowed to have an examination partly conducted by visiting examiners, the high school examination should be wholly conducted by means of written papers.

We recommend¹ that the plan of the examination should be as follows:—

- (1) The head master should be required to certify that each candidate whom he presents for the examination has received during his training at school a course of instruction of a kind and at a stage approved by the Board, in each of the following subjects and in any subject not mentioned in this list in which the candidate submits himself for examination:—

¹ Dr. Gregory thinks that all candidates should be required to offer six subjects and that the introduction to natural science should be withdrawn from (1) and added as a fifth subject under (3).

- (a) Introduction to natural science, including the teaching of elementary hygiene :
 - (b) History of India ; History of the British Empire :
 - (c) Drawing and manual training.
- (2) Every candidate should be required to present himself for examination in at least five subjects.
- (3) The following four subjects should be compulsory for all candidates :—
- (a) Vernacular :
 - (b) English :
 - (c) Elementary mathematics :
 - (d) Geography, including physical geography.
- (4) The candidate should also be required to offer himself for examination in one of the following subjects, and should be allowed in addition to this to offer a sixth subject also drawn from the following list :—
- (e) A classical language (Bengali-speaking Musalmans being allowed to offer Urdu in lieu of one of the languages ordinarily enumerated as classical) :
 - (f) An approved scientific subject (a number of alternative courses being allowed for his choice, one of these being of the nature of a general introduction to science) :
 - (g) Additional mathematics :
 - (h) History of India ; History of the British Empire.

We recommend further that the rules of the examination should require every candidate to reach a certain minimum standard in each compulsory subject ; that a certificate should be awarded to all candidates successful in the examination ; that each certificate should bear upon it the list of the subjects in which he has passed ; that the names of successful candidates should be published in two divisions (candidates who have gained two-thirds or three-fifths of the aggregate of marks in the examination being included in the first division) ; that distinction be awarded, and recorded on the certificate, in any subject in which the candidate's work reaches an exceptionally high level of excellence (as shown by his having gained, say, 75 per cent. of full marks in the subjects) ; that (subject to special excellence in one branch of study being allowed to compensate within defined limits for some degree

of failure in another) a candidate should be required to pass in all the obligatory subjects at one examination¹; that a candidate who fails should be allowed to present himself at any future examination; and that a candidate who has already passed the examination should be permitted to present himself at a subsequent examination in one or more alternative additional subjects.

VII.—*Recognition and inspection of schools.*

71. The plan which we have proposed in this chapter will entail a more exacting standard of efficiency in regard to the staffing and equipment of all recognised high English schools in Bengal. At the present time however about half of those schools subsist on the fees paid by their pupils and receive no aid from public funds. They are under private management and are liable to inspection by the University but not by the Department of Public Instruction acting on its own authority. We propose that the functions now exercised by the University in regard to the recognition and inspection of schools should be transferred to the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education upon which the universities will have effective representation. This proposal raises two questions of principle which we will now discuss.

72. When under earlier conditions this responsibility for the recognition of schools was thrown upon the University by Government, public opinion approved the arrangement, because this duty seemed inseparable from the duty of conducting the matriculation examination over which the University itself exerted sole control. But two changes have supervened. First, the matriculation examination has by insensible degrees been required to discharge, in addition to its original function, another not less important—namely the ascertainment of the general results of high school training as imparted not only to those who are going forward to the University but also to the large number of boys who cannot or should not entertain the ambition of pursuing an academic course. Secondly, the cost of an efficient high school education is steadily rising. The need of the community for the best services which high schools can render grows more urgent year by year. The University knows what a good high school

¹ For a discussion of the principle of 'compensation,' which should be applied in the high school examination, see Chapter XVII, para. 80.

should provide for its pupils, but is in the painful position of knowing that hundreds of them cannot afford to provide it. Nor has it any funds out of which to make the grants-in-aid which a large proportion of the high schools badly need and which in other countries, in view of the increasing costliness of efficient education, they receive in ever larger measure from public funds.

73. Thus at present the University is trammelled by an invidious responsibility. On it rests the duty of deciding whether or not it should bestow the privilege of recognition on each new high school which springs up in response to the educational aspirations of Bengal. By granting recognition, the University attests to the public the competency of the school to give the kind of education which the community needs. By refusing recognition, it may appear to thwart the legitimate desires of a populous district. The middle course of granting provisional recognition does not carry with it any guarantee that the school will improve. Thus the University finds itself, with increasing frequency, in the dilemma of having either to block educational hopes or to give the hall-mark of its recognition to an institution which it cannot unreservedly approve.

74. The position becomes more embarrassing as time goes on. We have seen¹ that twelve years ago, when its present regulations were new, the University was able to effect great improvements in many schools which in the whole course of their existence had never been inspected before. But circumstances have changed. The cost of maintaining a high school according to modern standards of efficiency has risen. Hopes of increased Government grants have not been realised. The demand for high schools has become more intense. Thus the responsibility resting upon the University in regard to the recognition of high schools is heavier than ever. Its power to secure effective improvement in secondary education has relatively declined. Such a false position becomes increasingly irksome as the need for reforms in the high schools grows more urgent. Yet we cannot entertain any hope that, if the present conditions continue, this false position will be relieved. Already, as our evidence shows, the existing arrangements lead to misunderstandings and even to friction. None of its varied duties can

¹ Chapter X, para. 10.

cause the Syndicate greater anxiety than the discharge of its responsibilities towards the secondary education of Bengal. The volume of these responsibilities is great. Questions connected with the conduct of the matriculation and with the recognition of schools occupy more than half of the time which it devotes to the business of the University.¹

75. But a connexion between the University and the schools from which it draws its students should be carefully preserved. It is in the University that many of the most promising of the boys whom the schools are training will complete their studies. Their future proficiency in those studies depends in a considerable degree upon the training which the school must begin. The University therefore should have a voice in deciding what schools should teach, just as representatives of the schools should have a voice in deciding what the University should require. The University should have some influence in determining the scope of the examinations by which school boys are tested, just as representatives of the schools should have a share in confirming the general principles by which the university examinations are framed. From this point of view, it is necessary to qualify in some degree the words in which the Indian Universities Commission of 1902 expressed their conclusion that "the conduct of a school final or other school examination should be regarded as outside the functions of a university."² In the conduct of such examinations, the University should, in our judgment, have direct influence. But to the sole management of such examinations it has no claim. Other interests are concerned besides the University's interests; other forms of experience, besides the experience of the University, should be blended in the authority which controls them. Nor, on the other hand, is it sufficient to say "all that unaided private schools want is recognition by the University, so that they may send up their students as candidates for the university entrance examination; and, for that purpose, all that the University is called upon to ascertain is that they are well-conducted institutions, are efficient in teaching up to the entrance examination standard and are not injurious to the interests of discipline."³ Even if we were to

¹ Chapter XXVII, para. 57.

² Indian Universities Commission, 1902, Report, page 69.

³ *Ibid.*, note of dissent, page 80.

assume that the University is able effectively to ascertain all that should be known on these points, and even if we were to grant that it is in a position not only to ascertain that the schools are well-conducted and efficient at the time when they apply for recognition, but to ensure their continuing in that state, we should feel that these words touch only some aspects of a many-sided problem. A high school is by its nature necessarily more than a nursery to the University. It is part of the educational system of the country. It has an obligation to the whole community, not merely to the boys whom it trains or to the parents whose fees are paid to it. Private or public, it cannot evade this evident obligation. The decision as to what it should teach is not legitimately governed by its own predilections alone, nor alone by the predilections of the parents, nor by the demands of the University alone. All these indeed are in different degrees pertinent to the issue. But transcending them all, though not necessarily in conflict with them, is the interest of the community as a whole. The interest of the community is inseparably involved in the work of every school, and especially in that of schools which receive a formal recognition implying a guarantee of fitness for the work which they propose to do. The community, in safeguarding its interests, needs to look wider afield than to the entrance examination of the University alone.

76. Education, however important to the individual and therefore rightly adjusted to individual requirements, is also a matter of public concern and therefore calls for incessant re-adjustment to public needs. For this reason we have recommended the establishment of a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education so representative in character as to reflect the needs of the community, but not so unwieldy in size as to be ineffective in the work of administration. If such a representative Board is established, the experience of the University will find effective expression in its policy and administration. To such a Board we recommend that in future the responsibility of the University for the recognition of schools should be transferred.

77. The second question of principle which arises is whether unaided high schools which are under the management of private bodies should be required to come under the supervision of a central authority so constituted as to represent the whole community.

The unusually large number of privately managed schools in the Presidency makes this a question of considerable practical importance to the future welfare of the University and of all other parts of higher education in Bengal.

78. The whole community is concerned in the work of secondary schools as upon their excellence its general welfare depends to a considerable degree. All secondary schools therefore, which desire to be recognised as part of the national system of education, should be under the supervision of a representative public authority, whatever be the sources of their income and whatever the characteristics of the management by which they are controlled. It is essential that the public authority charged with the duty of their supervision should be one in whose expert knowledge, judgment and impartiality confidence may be reposed. This authority will find it necessary to exercise its supervision by means of inspection and of examination, though part of the work both of inspection and of examination may be delegated to some approved authority or authorities, provided always that the community takes guarantees that the duties so delegated are wisely and efficiently discharged. It is essential that inspection should allow freedom for varieties of method in teaching, of school organisation and of arranging courses of study, subject to the requirement of minima fixed in the public interest and liable to constant criticism and review. The importance of securing such freedom is due to the fact that the science and art of education are progressive, and the needs of the community diverse. It is equally essential that the examination of individual pupils should be so conducted as not to overstrain them or to interfere with their normal development. Lastly, in the interests of the community, the State is under obligation to assure itself that the teaching and influence of the schools are not inimical to public order, and that no school harbours elements which menace civil peace. But, though the State may at times find that the protection of the community from the dangers of subversive propaganda or of outrage may compel it to have regard to the educational work of schools, it is desirable that educational inspection and police supervision should be kept wholly distinct.

79. In Bengal in 1916-17 there were fourteen high schools under the management of private bodies to every high school under the management of Government or of municipalities. On March

31st, 1917, the number of boys and girls in all the provinces of British India studying in high schools which were in receipt of aid from public funds was 70·8 per cent. of the total number of pupils in high schools of every type. But in Bengal the corresponding percentage on the same day was only 45·6 per cent. Thus in British India as a whole, out of every ten boys and girls receiving a high school education nearly seven were in schools which are inspected and aided. In Bengal out of every ten boys and girls receiving a high school education more than five were in schools which receive no aid from the State.

80. Historical reasons explain the extent of private enterprise in secondary education in Bengal. As we have shown in an earlier chapter¹, the Government emphasised the value of private initiative in education and on principle encouraged it. Its policy was to bring 'in all its degrees under efficient inspection' a system in which Government agency or aid should be combined with private exertion and liberality². In no part of India was the soil readier for the growth of such a policy than in Bengal. The private secondary schools of the Presidency have claim to guidance and aid because they are the outcome of a public policy long and deliberately pursued.

81. That policy rested upon two distinct foundations. The first was the conviction that education, and especially secondary education, should not all be cast in one mould, even though that mould were fixed by the Government. The second was an assumption that secondary education could in most cases be kept efficient by means of the fees paid by pupils receiving it. The conviction that freedom of educational initiative should be preserved has been justified by experience. The assumption that secondary education can normally be self-supporting has proved unsound.

82. Private initiative in education has in the past rendered great service to religion, to culture and to trade and is likely to prove of great value in the future. But it has never yet sufficed to meet all public needs. It can originate a movement of educational ideas. It can protect the convictions of a minority. But it cannot supply a whole people with a system of schools. And it is peculiarly

¹ Chapter IV.

² Despatch from the Court of Directors of the East India Company on the subject of the education of the people of India, July 19th, 1854, paras. 47 and 51.

liable to succumb to the temptation of regarding immediate results as the criterion of success. If private schools have produced some of the best things in education, they have also been responsible for some of the worst. Some private enterprise is illustrious in educational history ; much of it is dull, inert and mechanical ; some of it is a by-word and a scandal. The problem is how to preserve it as a source of new ideas without allowing it to deprive the community of the educational opportunities which the community's collective power can provide more adequately in other ways.

83. Privately managed high schools in Bengal are straitened in income, and partly for this reason are also straitened in their ideas of educational excellence. Unfortunately the percentage of privately managed high schools receiving subsidy from public funds has declined during the last five years. In 1911-12 it was 40 per cent. of the total of high schools ; in 1916-17 it was 37 per cent. Financial aid of a substantial kind is needed in order to enable the high schools to serve the interests of the community. As the University is necessarily not in a position to extend financial aid to the secondary schools, we propose that the latter should be enabled to receive it by coming under the guidance and supervision of the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education which would be in a position to make liberal grants and in which the influence and experience of the University would be merged. The secondary schools would remain under a supervising authority ; the University would be effectively represented upon the Board to which its responsibility for the recognition of schools should be transferred ; and the Board by reason of its fully representative character and its special relation to Government would be able to give to the struggling secondary schools the financial assistance which they need and without which they cannot provide a liberal education.

84. We have found that the chief defect in the high schools in Bengal lies in the insufficient professional qualifications of the vast majority of their teachers. This weakness, though noticeable in the schools under Government management, is conspicuous in the private schools. As a foundation for efficiency, there should be less disparity between the private and the Governmental schools. For improvement in the salaries and prospects of the teachers and for the allocation of grants from public funds, all the high schools

should be encouraged to come into relation with the central authority which will represent the State.

VIII.—The recruitment and position of teachers in intermediate colleges and high English schools.

85. One of the happiest results which we hope would arise from the mode of organisation we are proposing would be a growing unification among the different types of schools which now exist in Bengal, but a unification which would allow for and encourage variety of type and individual initiative. At present there is too sharp an administrative cleavage between Government schools and colleges on the one hand, and private schools and colleges on the other; and between these two types there is little or no co-operation or interchange of teachers. Under the general direction of a central authority or representative Board, it is reasonable to expect that this cleavage would diminish, without in the least undermining the freedom of the private schools or of the State schools to try experiments and to adapt themselves to the needs of their localities.

86. But any such process of unification must depend upon the modes in which teachers are recruited, and the extent to which it is made possible for them to transfer their services from a school or college of one type to a school or college of another type. A reorganisation of the methods of recruiting and paying teachers is, indeed, urgently needed in any case, for the sake of efficiency. And it is in our view essential that any new system should consider the needs of the high schools and of the intermediate colleges together, and should make transfers or promotions easy, not only from private to Government schools or colleges and *vice versâ*, but from high school work to intermediate work.

87. There are at present two distinct methods of recruitment, one for Government schools, the other for private schools; and this distinction is one of the main causes of cleavage between the two types of schools. In the privately managed schools teaching-posts are filled by the authorities of the school on such conditions as to salary and tenure as they find sufficient to attract the kind of men they need or think adequate for their purpose. But the teachers have no security of tenure, there is no fixed salary scale—the salaries, as a rule, being so inadequate that most teachers have

to resort to private coaching to eke out a livelihood—and at the end of their service, however long and faithful it may have been, the teachers cannot, as a rule, look forward to any pension or superannuation allowance. In Government schools, on the other hand, the teachers are appointed, not by the governing body of the school, but by Government. They become members of one or other of the educational services. If their salaries are unduly low (as, in most cases, they undoubtedly are) they have at least security of tenure and the prospect of a pension. It is because of this security and of these prospects and the social distinction which they reflect that Government service is mainly preferred. But it has its drawbacks. Promotion in a large heterogeneous service is generally by seniority, and therefore progress is necessarily slow. The ablest and most zealous young man knows that he has no prospect of rapid promotion, such as he may sometimes obtain in the better private schools. His zeal and his ambition are discouraged by this absence of prospects which, combined with the unattractive salaries, undoubtedly debars many able young men from entering upon educational work.

88. In our judgment it is necessary, if there is to be real educational progress in Bengal, that the sharp cleavage between the two forms of recruitment, and the consequent cleavage between the two types of schools which results from it, should be brought to an end; and that at the same time the characteristic defects of each form of recruitment should be amended. The system of recruitment in Government schools ought to be more elastic; the system of recruitment in private schools ought to offer greater security and better prospects; and both should be so linked that the able and ambitious young man who begins his career in either type of school should be able to feel that by hard and good work he can make a career for himself. Above all it should be made possible to arrange an interchange of experience between the two types of schools. At present a teacher of long experience in even the best of private schools cannot well be transferred to the service of a Government school, because this would mean that he must begin at the bottom of the scale of promotion. On the other hand, it is only in exceptional cases that a private school can obtain the services of a teacher who has had experience in a Government school or college, because, in order to make such a

transfer, the teacher would have to leave the service, and sacrifice his chances of promotion and pension.

89. We are far from undervaluing the benefits which the system of Government service has brought to secondary education in Bengal and we realise the tenacity of the hold which the system has upon the public mind. We do not believe that it can be discarded immediately or until there are signs of the growth of a much stronger professional feeling among the teachers. But we feel nevertheless that the system is in many respects inappropriate to school work, and, in its present form, an obstacle to the proper co-ordination of the whole school system. If the only alternative to the service system was a system open to such grave abuses as we have found in some of the privately managed schools, we should scarcely venture to recommend its ultimate abandonment. But we believe it is possible to devise a system which will retain the chief merits, while avoiding the defects, of the present service system; which would render possible the enlistment of as many European teachers as might be found necessary in a far more elastic way than is now possible, and without making the somewhat invidious racial distinctions which now arouse much dissatisfaction; and which would at the same time bring about a real unification of the teaching profession as a whole, and open to young teachers in all schools the prospect of a career such as might tempt men of ability into this vitally important sphere of public service. Ultimately, of course, it can only be by large expenditure upon salaries that a sufficient supply of men of the right type can be obtained. But even if large funds were made available, they would not bring about the best results while the present system survived.

90. We recommend that, at the earliest practicable date, and (of course) with the fullest safeguards for the actual and prospective rights of existing members of the services, the present methods of recruiting teachers should be changed, and that, in their place, the following methods should be adopted.

91. (i) In all schools and intermediate colleges under the direct management of the Board—and these would include all schools and colleges at present maintained and controlled by Government, as well as any which may in future be established by Government or by the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education acting in its behalf—a *minimum* commencing salary (and, if thought

desirable, a regular rate of increment) should be fixed from time to time for every post in the school or college, from the head-mastership or principalship downwards. In the event of a vacancy in any of these posts, all qualified persons, without distinction of race, or of length of service, and whether previously engaged in teaching in institutions under the Board or not, should be eligible for appointment. The aim should be to make the appointment best suited to the existing needs of the institution, without regard to any other consideration. Every teacher should be appointed on a written contract which should give him (after a probationary period, in the case of untried teachers) security of tenure for a defined term so long as his conduct remained satisfactory. In the event of unfair dismissal, or of breach of contract he should have by the terms of his agreement the right of appeal to a tribunal constituted specially for this purpose. This tribunal should be constituted by Government and should have authority to award compensation. Acceptance of an appointment should not in any way restrict the freedom of a teacher to seek subsequently another appointment elsewhere in any school or college, public or private, under the jurisdiction of the Board, without sacrificing any of his rights; nor should he be liable to transfer without his own consent.¹ Existing members of the educational services would stand their old rights on a par with other candidates for the vacancy. If a member of one of the educational services were chosen for the post, he should be given the choice of either retaining his status in the service at service rates of pay and pension (which might be less or more than the pay and prospects of the post to which he was appointed) or of withdrawing from the service and taking his chance with the pay and prospects afforded by the new system. In some cases it might be found desirable to appoint to a particular vacancy a European-trained teacher recruited in the manner to be described later. In that case his pay would be that fixed by his contract when recruited; but even if this were higher (as it might often be) than the normal rate of pay for the post, this should give him no special privilege or claim to superiority over his colleagues.

¹ These conditions would not apply to members of the corps of teachers proposed in paras. 99-104 below.

92. (ii) In the case of private schools recognised but unaided from public funds, it should be made a condition of recognition that rates of salary be defined for every teaching post in the school. In the case of aided private schools, the Board should make it a condition of the grant that a minimum salary be assigned to each post. The minima thus defined might be less in schools aided by the Board than in schools controlled by it. But in all cases, it should be a condition of recognition that the teacher's terms of appointment should be embodied in a written contract, a copy of which should be deposited with the Board; and that he should have a right of appeal in case of breach of contract to the tribunal mentioned above, the governing body agreeing to abide by its decision.

93. (iii) In place of the pension system, which is now confined to teachers appointed under the conditions of Government service and restricts their freedom to transfer themselves from posts in Government schools and colleges to posts in non-Governmental institutions, and in order to extend the advantages of assured retiring allowances to teachers in aided or recognised intermediate colleges and schools, we propose the establishment of a superannuation fund open to the whole profession of teachers in intermediate colleges and high English schools, membership of the fund being obligatory in the case of teachers of the staffs of Government and of aided schools and with the concurrence of the school authorities) to teachers in all other recognised high schools and intermediate colleges. This change will, if accompanied by a substantial annual grant from Government, secure an improvement in the prospects of a very large number of teachers who are excluded from the advantages of the present pension system and will remove one of the chief barriers to the mobility of teaching power in Bengal. We propose that the Government should make a substantial annual grant to the superannuation fund, as one of its contributions to education in the Presidency.¹ We recommend that in all Government schools and intermediate colleges, and in all aided schools and intermediate colleges, it should be one of the conditions of appointment that the teacher should subscribe a fixed percentage of his salary to a superannuation fund, the Board (or

¹ The superannuation system, as it gradually superseded the present system of pensions, would relieve the Government from some of the liabilities which are incurred by it under the existing arrangements.

the governing body in the case of the aided schools) contributing an equal or a greater amount; the proportion contributed by the employing authority might be greater in the case of the Board than in other cases. Unaided schools or intermediate colleges, recognised by the Board, should be entitled and encouraged to come into the scheme. All contributions to the superannuation fund should be paid regularly to the Board by the authorities of the school or college, in the name of the teacher concerned; and the Board should be responsible for the investment and management of the fund, possibly through approved insurance companies, and for the addition of the annual interest due to the account standing to the credit of each beneficiary.

94. It would be possible to allow every teacher the superannuation system to make his choice of kinds of benefit which would accrue to him—fixed for retirement (e.g., an annual income or a lump sum for investment). Teachers of long profession at an earlier age should be entitled to a policy maturing at a future date or to the right of their own contributions with compound interest. A teacher should retire before the normal age satisfactorily for more than a minimum term, or on any rate of the contributions which had been paid in his services by the authorities of the school should be ad- payable to him.

95. Under this system of appointments and of superannuation allowances there would be no obstacle to the transfer of a teacher from one type of institution to another. The teacher would not sacrifice by such transfer his claim to his superannuation allowance; the fund accumulated in his name would grow more rapidly if he were appointed in a more highly paid post, but otherwise he would be unaffected.

96. Ultimately it might be found desirable to apply the same methods in the case of the administrative and inspecting officers of the Department of Public Instruction, by allotting to each post, from the Directorship downwards, a stated salary, and securing full freedom, in making appointments to any of these posts, either to bring in a new man, or to appoint some one already engaged in the service of the Board. But we do not suggest

that the new system should, for the present, be applied in this sphere.

97. The system here outlined gets rid, so far as the main body of the teaching profession is concerned, of the inelasticity of the existing system. It gives assured tenure in accordance with the conditions of the contract as to which the teacher may enter. It leaves open the possibility of a considerable variation between the rates of pay in the private schools and intermediate colleges, and those in the State schools and intermediate colleges; but at the same time it makes possible an easy transfer from the one work to the other. It would go far to turn the teaching in Bengal into a unified and organised profession. It abolishes the artificial and rigid distinctions. It opens to every teacher the full capacity, and the improved methods of school education will give him increased opportunity for the possibility of quicker promotion to the highest work for which his abilities and attainments

A graduate might begin his work in a privately managed school, encouraged to accept a low salary and a small superannuation fund by the knowledge that he could offer later. He does good work; on the expiration of his term of appointment he is appointed to a post in one of the Board's schools. His subsequent increase in the rate of his salary, and the leave scholarship work, he can throw. If he feels tempted to leave scholastic work, he can throw. If he feels tempted to which will mature at a future date with him a paid-up policy superannuation contribution with which he can withdraw his own egg. But if he goes on with education and interest—a useful nest invited to accept the head mastership work, he may possibly be invited to accept the head mastership work, he may possibly be needs reorganisation, at a higher salary. a private school which therefore grows more rapidly. With his superannuation fund he may be able to bring about a great improvement in his experience he may improvement so marked that he may be asked out of his school; an charge of the training of teachers in a State (for example) to take From that he may pass to be an inspector or a headmaster of a school; he may return to one of the intermediate colleges as principal; if he has done scholarly work, he may be elected to a chair in one of the universities; if his strength is on the administrative side,

he may rise to be Director of Public Instruction. A career is open to him; a career such as is now quite impossible for a Bengali youth of ambition and ability, who undertakes educational work. The lack of the stimulus afforded by the prospect of such a career reacts unhappily on all his work, and is one of the main reasons why men of ability and ambition avoid school work.

99. Ultimately it will no doubt be possible to get all the work of the schools done by teachers recruited in this way. But that time has not yet come. Bengal cannot depend wholly upon her own resources for the great improvement and development of secondary and higher secondary education which she needs. She has not enough trained teachers. She has not enough men and women capable of training teachers efficiently. Her schools and colleges have got into a bad tradition of teaching, and need to be helped out of it. Mere assertions that the methods of teaching must be improved are not enough. Men and women must be brought in who have experience of other methods, and can show how to work them.¹ Again, Bengal needs better teaching of English, and for that purpose English-speaking men and women who are trained teachers are required in larger numbers, especially for work at the intermediate stage. There is need for training in the phonetic method of teaching languages. There is need for more teachers acquainted with modern methods of teaching science.

100. Such teachers, because in many cases they are brought from a great distance to live in unfamiliar surroundings, and in other cases have been put to great expense, must be paid more than it would be necessary to offer to qualified residents, if such were available, for the same kind of work, and more than they would themselves receive for the same kind of work at home. The problem is to devise a means of enlisting this necessary aid without dislocating the ordinary methods of recruitment, without introducing invidious distinctions, and without establishing a claim to superiority based upon superiority of pay. It has been one of the principal drawbacks of the present service mode of recruitment that it has been attended by these disadvantages. Some of the features of the service system, and above all good pay and security of tenure, are necessary if the right kind of men and women are

¹ Chapter XLIII, para. 43, for reforms needed in the methods

be persuaded to give up their careers elsewhere. But other features of the service system—the uniformity of its terms and of its methods of promotion, and the reservation of particular posts to be held by members of each branch of the service—are not only unnecessary but are unfavourable to the best use of such a corps of helpers from the West as Bengal needs.

101. A body of teachers imported from the West would, in fact, be of greatest use if they did not have special posts reserved for them, but were organised as a sort of head-quarters corps, ready to be sent wherever they were most needed, at the direction of the Board, and equally available for service in State or in private institutions. Groups among them, for example a group of teachers of educational method or of physical training, might require more or less the same training, and therefore receive more or less the same salary. But some of the members of the corps ought to be engaged on special terms, and some for a short period. There should therefore be no such rigid uniformity in the terms of their appointment as the present service system enjoins. And they should have no claim to superiority on the ground of their higher pay; nor should they have any claim to any particular post, such as a principalship. They should be essentially an auxiliary corps, distinct from, but supplementary to, the normal staffs of the schools and intermediate colleges. These desiderata imply that they should not be organised on the basis of the existing educational services.

102. We recommend, therefore, the creation of a special corps of teachers, to be appointed on the express ground that (whether themselves Indians or Europeans) they can make a contribution of special value to the educational methods of Bengal owing to their training in, and experience of, the educational methods of other countries. Some of them might be appointed for a short term, others for the whole duration of their working life. The rates of pay and (if necessary) of pension should be fixed in each case in view of the kind of man or woman desired. The appointments should of course be held under a definite guarantee from Government. The Government of India might give invaluable aid in obtaining the right kind of candidates¹; and this would especially be the case if other provinces should adopt the same

method. Not only would a wasteful competition between provinces be avoided, but it would often be possible to arrange for transfers from one province to another. But we do not suggest that the Government of India should itself make the appointments, or maintain a corps of teachers for the whole of India. In Bengal the Government acting through the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education should have freedom not only in making the appointments, but in varying their number and character as the needs of the educational system might demand. In some cases there might be a stipulation that the candidates, if British, should have received some training in such an institution as the London School of Oriental Studies, or arrangements might be made to pay the cost of such a course for a suitable man or woman. In other cases a promising Indian teacher, selected because he had already done good work under the Board, might be sent to Britain or America to study in a particular training institution. What is needed is the greatest possible elasticity; and this means a freedom in fixing the salary and conditions for any particular appointment such as no formal service system would permit.

103. The work to be done by members of the special corps would be fixed by the Board. Many of them would be employed in teaching English, or the methods of teaching, or some of the more neglected sciences, like zoology, in the intermediate colleges. They might, in special cases, be called upon to act as head masters or principals, though this would not be a matter of right. Yet others might be lent to privately managed schools or intermediate colleges if these institutions applied for their services, and this would form a very effective way of aiding non-governmental colleges and schools. Others (for example a special teacher of phonetics or of physical instruction, brought out for a year or two) might pass from one intermediate college to another, spending a short period in each. Yet others might be called upon to act as inspectors, or to take part in the examination of schools.

104. We believe that a body of this kind is essential if the reorganisation of secondary and higher secondary education in Bengal is to be efficiently carried out. But we also believe that it may fail of its purpose if its members are all of a uniform type, paid in a uniform way, or if they are given any reason to suppose the

particular posts belong to them by right, or if, whatever special arrangements may be made with them in regard to salary, etc., they are encouraged to regard themselves as in any way the superiors of their colleagues in the ordinary teaching service whom they are brought out to supplement and assist. And in our judgment it is only by a frank departure from the service system as hitherto worked that these ends can be secured.

105. The educational needs of Bengal, then, can in our opinion best be met by a clear definition of two different types of teachers who are required : *viz.*, the great body of the ordinary teaching profession, who will, more and more as time goes on, be able to undertake the whole or almost the whole of the work ; and a special corps of specially trained teachers brought in to give help in a variety of ways during a period of transition. The first group, forming the main body of the profession, should be so organised as to render the transference of a teacher from one type of institution to another, possible and easy, and to place before every young acolyte of the profession the possibility of a career whose success will be determined only by his own abilities. The second group should be organised with the utmost elasticity, not as a specially privileged body, but as an auxiliary corps of helpers with experience gained outside Bengal, whose services could be readily employed wherever they may be most needed. But it must be obvious that no such system could be made to work satisfactorily, in regard to either group of teachers, unless all the schools, public and private alike, were placed under the direction of a central authority, fully in touch with the work of all of them, aware of good work wherever it was being carried on, and looked to by every school for guidance and help, without any such interference as would impair legitimate freedom.

IX.—The aims of secondary education.

106. In order to define more clearly the benefit which the community would receive from a great improvement in its secondary schools, we will attempt a short description of the liberal education which they should endeavour to provide. But we hope that, in doing so, we may not be thought to underrate the distance which education everywhere separates the actual from the ideal. It is seldom the lot of a teacher to come near the achievement of his highest aims. As rarely can a school impart to its scholars all

that at its best a liberal education implies. But by unselfishness and patience a teacher becomes the channel through which his pupils learn more than he dared hope to give. And, with the help of a right spirit among its governors and staff, a school, even though hampered by lack of means, may communicate in the simplest form but nevertheless with great power over mind and character the essential qualities of a good education.

107. Such an education should be given under conditions favourable to the health of the pupils. Their bodies should be developed and trained by systematic and vigorous exercise. Their eyes should be trained to see, their ears to hear, with quick and sure discrimination. Their sense of beauty should be awakened, and they should be taught to express it by music and by movement, and through line and colour. Their hands should be trained to skilful use. Their will should be kindled by an ideal and hardened by a discipline enjoining self-control. They should learn to express themselves accurately and simply in their mother tongue and, in India, in English also. Through mathematics, they should learn the relations of forms and of numbers. Through history and literature they should learn something of the records of the past; what the human race (and not least their fellow-countrymen) have achieved; and how the great poets and sages have interpreted the experience of life. Their education should further demand from them some study of nature and should set them in the way of realising both the amount and the quality of evidence which a valid induction requires. Besides this it should open windows in their mind, so that they may see wide perspectives of history and of human thought. But it should also, by the enforcement of accuracy and steady work, teach them by what toil and patience men have to make their way along the road to truth. Above all, the education should endeavour to give them, by such methods and influences as it is free to use, a sure hold upon the principles of right and wrong and should teach them to apply those principles in their conduct. Thus its chief work is to enlighten and practise the conscience, both the moral conscience and the intellectual. And, through the activities of corporate life in the school it should give the pupils experience in bearing responsibility, organisation, and in working with others for public ends, whether leadership or in submission to the common will.

108. When however we pass in review the present state of secondary education in Bengal, we are compelled regretfully to acknowledge that very few of the schools are giving even the bare essentials of a liberal education. In the great majority of them, physique and health are neglected; there is no training of the hand; the study of nature is practically ignored; the aesthetic and emotional sides of a boy's nature are disregarded; corporate life is meagre: training through responsibility is generally undeveloped; little guidance is given as to right and wrong; methods of class teaching are crude and clumsy. In most schools English, the vernacular, mathematics, history are badly taught. Such a state of things injures the interests of all the boys whether they are going forward to the University or not. It is hurtful to the whole community, which suffers from the failure of the schools to develop and train the powers of the younger generation. And the mischief is not lessened by the flux of time. On the contrary, apart from the efforts of exceptionally gifted men and women, it tends to deteriorate under the difficulties caused by increasing numbers of pupils in the schools and by the inexperience of the teachers. Four-fifths of the members of the staffs have nothing better to guide them in their work than recollections of the methods which were employed when they themselves were boys at school. We are thus driven to the conclusion that the inadequacy of the great majority of the secondary schools injures the University and is one of the gravest defects in the educational system of Bengal.

109. But the task of reforming the hundreds of high schools from which the University draws its students within the area of Bengal will be enormous and necessarily slow. We propose that the difficulty should be met by bringing it within manageable limits. This can be done by furnishing the Presidency with what it does not at present possess, and badly needs, a system of higher secondary education. To provide such a system would not be unduly expensive. The establishment of the new institutions, bearing the name of intermediate colleges, need not occupy more than five years. At the end of that time the University would be surrounded by a circle of efficient higher secondary institutions from which it would draw (with a few minor exceptions) the whole body of its students.

110. Though such a remodelling and development of higher secondary education in Bengal would entail the giving up of the intermediate classes now under its immediate jurisdiction, the University would greatly gain by the change. In the course of its advance and natural growth the University of Calcutta has passed through the same experience as many of the universities of the West. For a long time it has had perforce to undertake, as part of its duty, work which is proper not to a university but to higher secondary schools. At first this was inevitable because there were no other institutions to which the care of this preliminary training could be assigned. But as the departments of more advanced teaching, which are its prerogative and true concern, have grown and developed, the elementary courses prefixed to them have gradually become inappropriate to the organisation of the University. What was at first a convenience has become an anachronism. The more fully the University enters upon its right province in higher education, the more anomalous does this appendage of elementary classes become. This has been the experience of many universities in the West, and the University of Calcutta has now reached the stage at which its introductory (or as they are called, its intermediate) courses may wisely be discarded and be allowed to pass into the sphere of higher secondary education. To this they fitly belong, because of the age of the students concerned, the standard of attainment which they have reached, and the kind of teaching and guidance which they require.

111. The establishment of the system of intermediate colleges which we shall propose in the next chapter would furnish Bengal for the first time with opportunities of higher secondary education adapted to the needs of industry, commerce and agriculture as well as of professional callings, and would increase the wealth of the Presidency by enhancing the intellectual vigour of the elite of the rising generation and their power of initiative. It would thus in due time lessen the burden of poverty which now weighs upon the educated classes. Prospects of well-paid and responsible employment would improve. The congestion caused by the concentration of ability upon a too restricted number of careers would be relieved. The mischief which is being done by unsuitable forms of teaching and by an unsuitable method of examination would be ended at

the most critical points in a student's course. The University, released from the responsibility of giving instruction to boys still immature for the training which it is the true function of a university to provide, would find its growth no longer hampered by inappropriate duties and would be free to seize the great opportunities which lie open before it.

112. The establishment of intermediate colleges, giving higher secondary education under sound conditions of staffing and equipment, would bring a new and powerful agency for improvement into the educational system of Bengal. For the first time a good standard of school teaching would be conspicuously set up. And it would be planted at the place in the system from which it would exert the greatest influence. The corporate life, class discipline and teaching methods of the intermediate colleges would, if the latter were strongly staffed and adequately equipped, diffuse gradually throughout the province a new and more exacting view of what a secondary school should be and do. Those secondary schools which are already good would enjoy increasing public appreciation. Parents, seeing what the new intermediate colleges did for their older sons, would ask that the high schools should be improved in order that the younger boys also might enjoy the benefit of better teaching and of healthier conditions of school life. Governing bodies of secondary schools would realise that new standards were coming into vogue. The leaven of new educational ideas would be at work throughout the cultivated classes in Bengal and would affect the outlook of other sections of the community, indirectly with benefit to the primary schools.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE INTERMEDIATE COLLEGES.

I.

1. In the last chapter we have argued that the right development of university work demands a reorganisation of higher secondary education ; and that for this purpose it is necessary that the work now done in the intermediate classes of the University should be transferred to institutions of a new type, to be known as intermediate colleges, to be organised and conducted according to the methods appropriate for school work, to be distributed over every part of Bengal, and to be placed under the same general direction as the high English schools. This change is not only necessary as a means of providing more adequate preparation for university work for those of the students in the intermediate classes who will proceed to degree courses ; it is still more necessary to meet the needs of those who will go no further than the intermediate stage and who require more carefully differentiated courses of study than are now offered to them. It is necessary for yet a third reason, as the best practical means of relieving the congestion caused by the crowding of young and immature students into Calcutta, and of helping to mitigate the evils and dangers which result from this, and which we have described in Chapter XIX.

2. For these reasons we regard the proposals to institute intermediate colleges as the very pivot of our whole scheme of reform ; and we therefore propose, in the present chapter, to explain the work which the intermediate colleges ought to undertake, in fuller detail than the plan of the last chapter permitted.

3. We have already discussed the organisation of the teaching staffs both for the high schools and the intermediate colleges, and shown that the reforms which seem to be demanded by the circumstances can, in our judgment, only be carried out under the administration of a central authority which will exercise supervisory powers over both public and private institutions, whether schools or intermediate colleges. In our judgment it is e,

that, at any rate during the next few years, the great majority of the intermediate colleges should be provided and directly controlled by the central authority, partly because their cost¹ will be so substantial that it is unlikely that private bodies will be able to make themselves financially responsible, at any rate for more than a part of the cost; but mainly because the character of the work to be done by the new institutions is of such vital importance, and needs such careful guidance, that until they are well established and sound traditions have been formed, the policy and curricula should be directed by an efficient central body. At the same time we regard it as important that every intermediate college should have a local committee of management, including the principal and some of the teachers. This committee could make recommendations to the central authority, and it might in time be allowed an increasing freedom of action in certain directions.

4. The first problem which must face the organisers of the new system is the way in which the proposed intermediate colleges are to be brought into existence, and their relations with the existing high schools, as well as with those colleges of the University in which intermediate work is now carried on. As will have been made clear in the last chapter, we attach great importance to the creation of a close link between the new institutions and the high schools; only so will the influence of the intermediate colleges in developing improved methods of teaching be fully felt in the schools. But we are compelled to discard the proposal put forward by many of our correspondents,² that all high schools should be encouraged to undertake intermediate work. Many of them already do their existing work so inefficiently that such a change would do more harm than good.

5. It will not be possible, in organising the new system, to follow any single uniform plan. The attempt to secure a logical uniformity of method seems to us to form the main defect of the interesting proposals worked out in a memorandum submitted to us, on behalf of a group of reformers, by the Rev. Garfield Williams.³ The essence of these proposals is that the two top classes of the present high school course should be removed from the high schools

¹ See below, Section X, paras. 58-61.

² See Chapter XII and answers to Question 8 *passim*.

³ General Memoranda, pages 453-477; see especially pages 466-469.

and combined with the two years of the intermediate course in a new type of institution. We recognise that such a scheme, if it were practicable, would have many advantages; in particular it would secure that the boys would be kept under the same direction long enough to render possible the creation of a real corporate spirit, and the exercise of a strong influence over mind and character. Where such an arrangement is practicable, it might well be adopted, and the regulations governing the intermediate colleges should be so framed as not to preclude it. But as a method to be uniformly adopted it is quite inapplicable to the conditions existing in Bengal. It would imply that all the high schools, except the few which were qualified to undertake the higher work, would be deprived of their two top classes; and that the new institutions which must be provided would have to be designed so as to accommodate far more than twice the numbers now included in the intermediate classes. This would form so serious an addition to the difficulty of an already difficult problem that the adoption of a uniform policy of such a kind would probably make any effective advance impossible.

6. The very important reform which we recommend can, indeed, only be effected if due regard is paid to the conditions already existing in Bengal. An analysis of these conditions shows that there are various ways in which intermediate training of the kind required by our scheme can be provided. All these methods must be simultaneously used, and the conditions existing in each district ought to determine which method will afford the most appropriate mode of meeting its needs.

7. The first method is the addition to a few selected high schools—mainly but not exclusively Government schools—of a higher department dealing with the intermediate work. Where this method is adopted, the top classes in the existing curriculum should be attached to the proposed higher department, and have the advantage of receiving some of their instruction from the teachers engaged in the intermediate work, the lower classes being possibly separately organised. This arrangement would, in particular, facilitate the provision of instruction in elementary science for the two top classes of the present high-school course. But the utmost care must be taken to ensure that no school is permitted to undertake this work unless it possesses, or can be provided with, adequate buildings, staff and equipment. In any

substantial additional subsidies from public funds will be necessary to enable even the best schools to undertake the new work.

8. The second method is to reorganise and utilise the existing second-grade colleges. Only seven second-grade colleges survive in Bengal. All are closely associated with high schools from which they have sprung; and it would be easy for them, as part of the necessary rearrangement of their organisation, to link the top classes of these schools with the work of the new type. All would need substantial subsidies to enable them to carry on their work according to the plan and method which our scheme contemplates, and which will be more fully described below.

9. The third method is to create at convenient centres new institutions specially designed for this work, and limited to it. Some intermediate colleges of this type will undoubtedly be required. Colleges of this type would, as a rule, provide a greater variety of the special courses described below; and it is likely that they will be most needed in Calcutta, in Dacca, and in close proximity to the more highly developed of the mufassal colleges.

10. At present the great majority of the intermediate students are taught in the first-grade colleges; and it is of the first importance to consider what will be the effect of our scheme upon these colleges, and what is to be done with the students now included in their intermediate classes. These questions will be more fully discussed in later chapters.¹ In our judgment many of these colleges, especially in the mufassal, will in the long run find it most to their advantage, and to that of the community, that they should devote themselves to intermediate work; and we hope that, at the earliest possible date, they will be enabled to make a wise choice between the two alternatives, that of devoting themselves wholly to intermediate work, and that of concentrating all their resources upon degree work. Not until this decision has been reached will the educational system of Bengal be brought into an efficient and orderly condition. At the same time we recognise that there must be a period of transition while the necessary readjustments are being made, and that it must be impracticable to withdraw suddenly all the students in the intermediate stage, even from those colleges which intend devote themselves wholly to university work. While, therefore,

¹ See Chapter XXXIV, paras. 121-124 and 141, for the Calcutta colleges, and XXXV, para. 46 for the mufassal colleges.

we consider it to be educationally undesirable that higher-secondary (or intermediate) work should be carried on in the same buildings and by the same staff as strictly university work, we recognise that it will be necessary for a time—we hope for no long time—to continue the intermediate work in these colleges alongside of the degree work, until they are ready either to abandon this work or to devote themselves wholly to it. But it is important that, from the earliest possible moment, this part of the work of these colleges should be brought under the control and regulation of the new authority for higher secondary education, and that they should be required to fulfil the conditions laid down for intermediate colleges in regard to size of classes, etc. To enable them to do this, it will be necessary to give them financial aid.

11. It is, of course, essential for a discussion of the scheme that we should form a trustworthy estimate of the cost, both initial and recurring, of working the numerous intermediate colleges whose institution we advocate. This will depend in part upon the extent to which it will be possible to utilise existing institutions, a point upon which we have no means of judging. But it must depend in an even greater degree upon the character of the instruction to be given ; and it is, accordingly, to that theme that we must next turn.

II.

12. The intermediate college must be regarded as fulfilling a double purpose. In the first place, it must provide a training such as will qualify its students for admission to the University, in all its faculties, or into other institutions for higher or technological training. In the second place, it must provide a training suitable for students who, after completing their course, will proceed direct into various practical occupations. As the system develops we should expect to find an increasing number of students entering upon the intermediate course solely with a view to preparing themselves for various practical careers.

13. These two categories, however, though their needs must be kept in mind, ought not to be too sharply differentiated from one another. The boy who has just completed the general high school course and passed the high school examination cannot fairly be required to have made up his mind whether he will proceed to a university course or not. He does not yet clearly know what possibilities are open to him ; and, in Bengal beyond all other coun-

the tradition that a university career is the right and natural one for all boys of ability and ambition is too deeply rooted to make it reasonable to expect that a boy will choose a course of study which will definitely exclude him from the University. The experience of the 'B' and 'C' courses in the high schools¹ is generally regarded as showing that carefully devised schemes of study are likely to fail unless they give access to a university career. While, therefore, the courses of the intermediate colleges ought to be so differentiated as to meet the needs of students of many different types, they ought not to be sharply differentiated into university and non-university courses. So far as may be, every alternative course of study should represent a possible line of approach to university work; and the examination should be so designed that the university will accept it (under certain defined conditions) as admitting the successful candidate to its courses in one or another faculty.

14. This is the less impracticable because, whatever career the student is ultimately to follow, one of the primary functions of the intermediate college must be to give him, so far as the limits of time permit, a sound liberal education, such as he cannot now get from most of the high schools, and will not be able to get, however rapidly the reform of the high schools may proceed, for many years to come. It will be a training specialised in some degree in view of his future career, as even the present intermediate course is, despite its defects. But it must also be a liberal training, and the 'vocational' element in it must be subordinate to this. If the intermediate course is thus conceived, it ought to be natural for the University to accept any form of it; for even though some forms of it may be materially influenced by the needs of particular professions, a modern university is a great nest of professional schools; and so long as the preliminary training for a professional career is not too narrowly technical, but uses the subjects of professional interest as the means of a liberal education, an enlightened and modern university should readily accept it, if it is satisfied that the course, and the examination which concludes it, meet the needs of its own schemes of training.

15. We recommend, therefore, that the courses in the intermediate colleges should be so designed as in every case to give admission

(if the examination at the end of the course is successfully passed) to the University, though not necessarily to every Faculty of the University. Thus one group of subjects would be specially suitable for admission to the Faculty of Arts, another to the Faculty of Science, another to the Faculty of Medicine, another to the Faculty of Engineering, another to the Faculty of Commerce or of Agriculture. At the same time we should regret any undue rigidity in the qualifications required for admission to various Faculties.¹

16. At present the intermediate course is differentiated into two distinct branches, arts and science; but, as we have seen, the distinction between them is in some cases very slight indeed. Since we contemplate provision for a great variety of different groupings of subjects, none of which will be either purely arts or purely science, we suggest that this distinction should be abandoned; and that a single examination, with a single name, but with a considerable variety of forms, should end the course.²

17. One of the most fundamental distinctions between the intermediate college and the present intermediate classes must be that the intermediate college will use the methods of a good school, in classes of reasonable size wherein question and answer will be possible rather than the methods of the mass-lecture. The maximum size for a school class at the top of the high school is fixed by university regulations at 50. This is too large for the greater part of the teaching work of a well-organised school; in especial a single teacher cannot supervise practical linguistic drill or practical science in a class of anything like this size.³ On the other hand, there are parts of subjects in which a class of this size, or even larger, can be quite efficiently handled. We recommend that variation in the size of classes should be provided for, and that small classes of 30 or less should be insisted on in all parts of the teaching in which it is essential that each pupil should daily receive individual attention. In

¹ Thus students who had taken at the intermediate stage a course not normally recognised as admitting to the Faculty they desired to enter should be afforded facilities for taking subsequently any necessary subjects they might have omitted.

² It is worth noting that the distinction between the intermediate in arts and the intermediate in science is not drawn in some other universities, for example in Allahabad; and the abandonment of the distinction in the case of Calcutta has been already recommended by the Committee of sixteen.

³ Even the existing regulations of the University for practical work in intermediate classes prescribe a maximum of 20.

some parts of several subjects these smaller classes might be grouped together. The question of the size and grouping of classes is important, because it must necessarily affect deeply the cost of staffing these colleges. There is one great difference in regard to staff between the intermediate college and the high school. The high school teacher need not be, and in some ways ought not to be, purely a specialist; in the intermediate colleges some, at any rate, of the teachers must necessarily be specialists. And this, again, must increase the cost of adequately staffing these colleges. But any detailed analysis of the teaching staff which will be required must depend upon the plan of the curriculum.

III.

18. Since a primary aim of the course in the intermediate college is to give the student a liberal education, there must be a common element in all forms which this course may assume. And the most essential part of this common element must obviously be a training in the media of self-expression, and of exact and clear thinking. This is, of course, the primary purpose of linguistic training; and the educated Bengali boy, who has to be bilingual, must be given a sound training in the use of at least two languages—his mother tongue and English.

19. But the teaching in languages, and especially in English, must be far more practical than it has hitherto been. It must not consist in learning by heart minute commentaries on prescribed selections from the classical English literature. The student must learn to read modern English easily; and therefore, while he may rightly study with care a few selected books chosen for the purity and directness of their style, he must also be expected to read somewhat widely. Next, he must be able to write English with clarity and precision; and therefore he must have constant practice in making *précis*, and in composing essays, and he must receive constant and competent criticism of the work which he does. Finally he must be able to speak English easily and correctly; and therefore he must be practised in reading aloud, and in speaking; and since the spoken use of a foreign tongue is difficult, it is desirable that he should be trained with the help of phonetic methods. All this involves teaching in relatively small classes. involves, also, the employment of teachers who have not only easy mastery of the language, but a knowledge of modern

linguistic methods. Manifestly it would be to the advantage of the students that the teaching should be, as far as possible, in the hands of English teachers. It is partly in view of this need that we have been led to make the recommendations regarding the enlistment of a special corps of teachers which will be found in the last chapter.

20. The provision of adequate teaching in English, on such a plan as we have outlined, would demand a considerable expenditure of time. The authorities of Serampore College, who speak from an intimate knowledge both of school and college work, suggest, in the very full and interesting memorandum¹ which they have submitted on the organisation of this sort of work, that eleven periods a week—that is, one period on Saturday and two on every other day—would be necessary for the purpose. We are inclined to think that this is unduly high; and that, provided the classes are small and the teaching efficient, eight periods in the first year and six in the second might very well suffice to ensure that the student possessed a real mastery of the language. Certainly his knowledge would be incomparably more efficient than it now is at the end of the intermediate stage; and his equipment, whether for university courses or for an immediate entry into practical life, would be proportionately better.

21. We attach great importance to the systematic study of the vernacular at this stage,² not only for its own sake, but as a means to clear thinking. The student should read some of the best work in modern Bengali or other vernacular, and be given practice both in composition and in clear and correct speech. Three periods a week, under competent teachers, would be sufficient for this purpose.

22. The only other subject which would seem to have a claim to be made generally compulsory in the intermediate stage is mathematics. But the only valid reason for such a claim is that the minimum standard of mathematical work required in the matriculation examination is insufficient for the purposes of a general education. We agree that this is at present the case. But we see no reason why it should continue to be so. Many of the schools have already shown that they can reach a much higher standard; this is demonstrated by the facts that about half of

¹ General Memoranda, page 333.

² Chapter XVII.

the candidates in the matriculation examination take additional mathematics, and that the average mark of all candidates in 1917 was no less than 61·2 per cent. It therefore seems practicable, even before any general improvement of the high schools has been effected, to raise the minimum standard demanded for admission to intermediate courses. We recommend that this should be done ; and that, consequently, mathematics should not be a compulsory subject for all students in the intermediate stage, though it would of course form a necessary element in many of the alternative courses which we shall propose.

23. English and vernacular would thus be the only universally compulsory subjects for all students in the intermediate colleges. We have next to consider how the remainder of the course of study should be planned, (a) for students who propose to proceed to the ordinary university courses in arts and science, and (b) for students who wish to qualify themselves for various professional careers. It is obviously impossible for us to define with exactitude the elements in the curriculum for all these purposes.¹ That must be the duty of the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education when constituted, acting with the advice of the universities ; but we hope that the Board will allow to each college a considerable latitude in the arrangement of its curriculum and of its time-table. It will be enough for our immediate purpose if we indicate in general terms the range of subjects which it would be desirable to include for various purposes.

24. Taking first the needs of students preparing themselves for degree courses in arts, we would urge the importance of securing that before entrance to the University they should have obtained some insight into the methods of natural science. We have already recommended that an element of natural science should be included in the high school course. But we recognise that in view of the difficulty of obtaining a sufficient supply of well-qualified teachers in this subject, it will be but slowly that this recommendation can be given practical effect. Until, in the judgment of the Board, the introduction of science into the high school course has been effectively carried out we think that all arts students in the intermediate stage should receive an introduction to science, during at least one year ; though the course in this subject need not

¹ For tentative suggestions as to courses of study in the intermediate colleges see volume of appendices to this report.

be uniform in all colleges, and need not be included in a centrally organised examination. When science teaching has become general and efficient in the high schools, it need no longer be made compulsory for arts students in the intermediate stage.

25. The course of a student who is looking forward to an arts degree ought also to include, if it be at all possible, some knowledge of history, an introduction to systematic geography, a course in English literature and literary criticism (as distinct from the practical study of the language, which will be common to all students), and a discipline in at least one of the 'reasoning' subjects—logic, economics or mathematics. To include all these subjects in a single course would obviously be impracticable; but the opportunity of studying each of them should be open to every student of this type.

26. But we have as yet left out of our reckoning another subject of very great importance—the study of oriental classical languages. Under the existing system every student is required to have presented a classical language in the matriculation examination. We have already recommended¹ that this requirement should no longer be enforced upon all students taking the high school examination, which will in our scheme take the place of the present matriculation. The question therefore arises whether the requirement of a classical course should be transferred from the high school to the intermediate stage. This is a question upon which the determining voice must necessarily rest with the universities, when they decide upon what conditions they will admit students to their courses. If the universities require every student to have taken a classical language as a condition of admission to degree courses in arts, then, manifestly, a classical course must be a necessary element in the intermediate stage for all students aiming at degrees in arts. On the other hand, the University may decide that this requirement can be dispensed with, or need only be exacted from those students who intend to follow courses of particular types. The only way of providing against all possibilities is to include the classical languages among a list of subjects from which a choice should be made. We think it would be practicable to demand from the student at this stage four subjects in addition to those already defined. And we recommend that these four subjects

¹ Chapter XXXI.

should be chosen from a list including (1) a classical language ; (2) history ; (3) geography ; (4) English literature ; (5) logic ; (6) economics ; (7) mathematics. Not all these alternatives need, of course, be offered in all intermediate colleges ; and if the University should insist upon a classical language in all cases, the range of free choice would be in fact restricted to three subjects. But greater freedom might be regained, if or when natural science ceased to be compulsory for arts students at the intermediate stage.

27. Our attention has been directed by many witnesses and correspondents to the heavy burden under which Bengali-speaking Musalman students now labour, owing to the large number of languages they are compelled to study, because of the requirements of the universities on the one hand, and the religious and social demands of their community on the other.¹ In view of these difficulties, and on the recommendation of many leading Musalmans, we are prepared to advise that if an oriental classical language (Sanskrit, Pali, Arabic or Persian) is prescribed, either as a compulsory or as an optional subject, Muslim students who do not present Urdu as their vernacular should be permitted to take this language in lieu of one of those named.²

28. But in whatever way the problem of the classical language is dealt with, we recognise that the course which we have defined is wide in its range. It would be an impossible course if it were to be conducted by the present methods of mass-lectures. Yet, as things now are, all the elements in it seem to us to be indispensable. And we believe that all can be dealt with on a well-organised system of class-teaching ; especially as all the elements in the course need not be, and ought not to be, treated as equal in weight, and some of them might perhaps be taken only in a single year. If we allow for twenty-eight periods in the week, there will, in fact, be room for an adequate treatment of the whole group of studies defined. But the course is undoubtedly wider in its range than is ideally desirable at this stage in a student's development ; and we hope that, as the high schools improve, it will become possible to reduce the range, and therefore to increase the depth, of the intermediate course.

¹ See Chapter VI ; see also Chapter XLI, para 25. *ad fin.*

² Chapter XLI, para. 25.

29. The student who intends to proceed to a science course in the University ought to take at least two science subjects—mathematics and a full treatment of geography should also be included among the list from which he might select. It would be well that he should, for cultural purposes, take also a course during at least one year in literature, history or economics, without having to undergo examination in it. In view of the necessity of his spending a considerable amount of time in the laboratories, the weight of his course would be at least equivalent to that which we have suggested for the arts student. It would also give him a solid basis of general knowledge.

IV.

30. We have next to consider the needs of students who may desire to proceed to professional training, and for that purpose to enter one of the professional colleges, which prepare candidates for professional degrees of the university, or other professional qualifications in medicine or engineering or, in the future, in agriculture; the needs of courses in scientific technology would probably be fully met by the kind of course we have suggested for science students.

31. The needs and requirements of the professional courses in medicine are dealt with elsewhere.¹ But it is plain that a student who had taken the intermediate course on such lines as we have suggested for the science group would be far better qualified to enter upon a medical training than most students now are, specially because he would have a more adequate knowledge of English. We do not, however, believe that it would be possible to provide, in all the intermediate colleges, or in any large number of them, the full equipment necessary to cover the whole range of the preliminary scientific examination of the medical degree course; nor do we think that, in view of the present condition of secondary education in Bengal, the whole of this range could be covered, by more than a few exceptional students, alongside of the necessary elements in the intermediate course, within the two years which we have assigned for the intermediate curriculum. We think, however, that an attempt should be made, as an experiment, to provide the necessary teaching at a few colleges, one or two in Calcutta, one at Dacca, one in Western Bengal, perhaps at Bankura, and

¹ See Chapters XXIII and XLIV.

one in Northern Bengal, possibly at Rangpur or Rajshahi. Some students in these colleges might be able to cover the whole of the work in two years; others, after taking the intermediate examination at the end of the two years' course, might then proceed to the preliminary scientific examination at the end of a third year. But it would obviously be impossible to limit the entries to the medical colleges to those students who had attended those intermediate colleges which provided teaching in all the subjects required. Students who had taken the intermediate course in other colleges would therefore have to be otherwise provided for, either by admission to a third year's course in these special colleges, or by special arrangements made in the universities to which the medical colleges were attached, for the provision of special instruction either in their own or in college laboratories.

32. One material advantage which would result from the organisation of a few intermediate colleges to provide for the special needs of medical students would be that the medical schools, (as distinct from the medical colleges) whose students are prepared not for a degree, but for the licentiateship, granted by the State Medical Faculty of Bengal, would be provided with better-trained entrants, and saved from the necessity of providing training in the preliminary scientific studies; a necessity which places difficulties in the way of the much-needed expansion of medical training of this type. In any case it is obvious that one of the alternative courses of study offered in the intermediate colleges should be, so far as possible, adapted to the needs of intending medical students. In the drafting of this course the Board should take the advice of medical men; and the medical colleges and schools might reasonably make such special allowance as seemed possible for students who took this course. We hesitate to put forward very precise recommendations on this subject, which should be dealt with by the Board, in consultation with the medical authorities, and with reference to the general development of secondary and higher secondary education. But we feel that the organisation of the intermediate colleges, once it is established, ought to be utilised to the fullest possible extent for the purpose of affording an adequate preliminary training for medical men.

33. It is obvious that a special group of courses should be designed for students intending to undertake the career of engineering either directly, or after a course at Sibpur or other institution

for training in engineering.¹ This course should include mathematics at a high standard, with chemistry, physics and mechanical drawing. Such a course would, we believe, not only prepare the student to take advantage of the regular course of study in engineering, it would be welcomed by the railway companies and other great engineering firms, many of which would probably be prepared to take students thus trained directly into their employment, or into a period of apprentice-training.

V.

34. In another chapter² we have shown that while Bengal has need of a certain number of highly trained agricultural experts, the number of such men who can find adequate employment is likely for many years, and perhaps always, to be small. But the educational system ought to be able to render services on a far larger, though less ambitious, scale than would ever be possible through the production of highly trained graduates. We believe there is need for men with a much less complete and scientific training than that which ought to be represented by a degree course. Zamindars who wish to understand the management of their own estates, and the agents who work for them, and the administrative officers of rural co-operative societies or district boards, and, perhaps, some of the teachers in rural schools, need a kind of training far less elaborate than a full degree course, such as is outlined in Chapter XLVII; and the kind of training which they need might very well be provided for them in some of the intermediate colleges in rural districts, especially in the neighbourhood of experimental and demonstration farms.

35. A course suitable for these purposes might include chemistry, botany, land-surveying, an introduction to the principles of agriculture sufficient to enable the student to follow with intelligence the work of the research stations and the experimental farms; and alongside of these some training in book-keeping. Mr. Coyajee has pointed out³ that such a course would practically correspond to the 'short course' in agriculture given at the University College of North Wales. A man thus equipped would be of

¹ Chapter XLVI.

² Chapter XXV; see also Chapter XLVII.

³ General Memoranda, page 366.

great use to a zamindar or a co-operative society; and an intermediate course planned on these lines might very properly be accepted by the University as a qualification for admission either to its courses in agriculture, or to its ordinary scientific course; so that the student who had taken it, while prepared to undertake certain kinds of agricultural work, or to pass into an agricultural college, would not be excluded from university courses. Here, again, we hesitate to lay down very definite recommendations; but we feel convinced that the intermediate colleges can be made of genuine service to the agricultural development of Bengal.

VI.

36. A large proportion of the teachers in the high schools of Bengal enter the teaching profession immediately after passing (or, in many cases, failing at) the intermediate examination. Under existing conditions these students, during their undergraduate course, receive no kind of direct preparation for this career; there is no means of ensuring that they have studied the subjects they will have to teach; and in nine cases out of ten their only experience of the nature and aims of school work is that which they have derived from their own attendance at inefficient schools.

37. It is of vital importance that teachers of this class should receive a better training than they have hitherto received, and we believe that it will be within the power of the intermediate colleges to afford such a training. In the first place it is obvious that the more thorough and practical knowledge of English which the students will obtain in these colleges will be of the highest value to them, especially if they receive some training in phonetic methods; while the more careful cultivation of the vernacular which should be a feature of the new intermediate colleges will be very helpful. The course, as a whole, will be specially useful for this purpose, because it can readily be made to include all the principal subjects in the school curriculum. To this we would add an introduction, not too pretentious in character, to the art of education; it would count as an alternative to logic and economics. This might involve at most one or two lessons a week, illustrated by occasional visits to the best available high schools in the neighbourhood and by a certain amount of practical work. The course need not include, except incidentally, psychology, or any formal study of the history of education; enough if it analyses and

discusses the aims of school work, and the methods by which they can best be pursued. And the student will learn much (if the intermediate college which he attends is organised, as it ought to be, as "a thoroughly efficient school) from merely watching the methods of his own teachers.

38. Training of this kind would not, and ought not to, take the place of the serious and systematic training which will be given in the university department of education¹, or in a good training college. But at least it would mean that all that very numerous class of teachers who are unable to go beyond the intermediate stage will be much better equipped for their work than they now are. And in recognition of this we recommend that a definitely higher rate of salary should be offered to teachers who have taken a course of this kind.

39. It is obvious that such a course as we have described would be entirely suitable to admit students to the arts courses of the Universities, since it would cover practically the same ground as is required for ordinary candidates for admission to the Faculty of Arts. The student could take it, therefore, with the knowledge that while he was equipping himself in some degree for the profession of teaching, he was also qualifying himself for admission to a university. We should hope that many students, after taking a course of this kind, might teach for a year or two in a school, and then proceed to the University, either to take an ordinary arts degree (which might or might not include education as one of its subjects) or to pursue a course of study under the university department of education, leading normally, after a year's course, to the licence in teaching (L.T.) or in some cases, after a special course of three years, to the degree of B.T.¹ We believe there is room for a course of this kind, which should include, besides an adequate study of professional subjects, some further study of those general subjects which are most widely studied in schools. A course of this kind would be of the highest value, and would not involve any lowering of the standard of the B.T. degree. Should this kind of course come to be widely followed, we should recommend that the utmost liberality should be shown in facilitating the transfer of qualified students who had reached the intermediate stage from

¹ See Chapter XLIII.

teaching work in the university department of education, and for rewarding them by increased pay when this course was completed.

40. In our judgment courses of the kind we have described should be provided in most, if not in all, intermediate colleges. The chief difficulty would be found in providing teachers capable of affording adequate guidance in the subject of education, while at the same time taking a share (as it would be necessary that they should) in the ordinary work of the college. This constitutes a further argument in favour of the importation of a number of western-trained teachers who, besides doing this work, could help in the English teaching. We should anticipate that some colleges would specialise in this kind of work, whose value and importance can scarcely be exaggerated. The colleges at Hooghly, Krishnagar, and Bankura, for example, struck those of us who visited them as especially well fitted to undertake this kind of work, more particularly because they happen to have some schools of more than average quality in their vicinity.

41. We attach great importance to the service which the intermediate colleges can render in this way. The educational progress of Bengal depends absolutely upon the possibility of increasing the number of efficient teachers in the schools; and while the intermediate colleges obviously cannot give a complete and systematic training, such as will be afforded in the University and in special institutions, they can give a useful introduction to the teacher's calling, and an equipment more satisfactory than the majority of teachers now possess. The needs of Bengal demand that every possible mode of improving the equipment of teachers should be used.

VII.

42. A very large number of our correspondents¹ have urged the importance of providing a system of training suitable as a preparation for commercial life. Many of them hold that this need will be adequately met by the provision of a university degree course in commercial subjects.² We do not wish to question the value of such a course. But it can be suitable only for the few, who are willing to postpone the commencement of a business career until

¹ See answers to Question 6, *passim*.

² See Chapters XXVI and XLVIII.

they reach the age of 21 or 22, an age at which few business firms are willing to accept recruits. It is the experience of those British universities which have initiated such courses that there are never more than a handful of students willing to take them up in substitution for the more usual degree courses, and that the great majority of the degree students in commerce consist of men actually engaged in business, who attend lectures in the evening.

43. Without disparaging university courses in commerce, it may fairly be said that what Bengal most needs is training at an earlier age, such as will interest the youth in commercial work, and fit him for undertaking it at the age at which recruits are generally sought by business firms. The need for such earlier training is strongly emphasised in a memorial addressed to us by the Marwari Community of Calcutta,¹ whose judgment on such a subject is obviously of the first importance. "The community believes from its own experience," we are told, "that an early saturation of its youth in business methods is eminently desirable." They therefore urge that the matriculation courses should be so shaped as to render possible the study of a group of subjects such as would provide some introduction to commercial practice.

44. We readily admit the desirability of introducing an element of this kind into the curriculum of those high schools which are capable of providing it. But we believe that more than this is necessary. The majority of the high schools of Bengal are not likely to be able to provide instruction of this character for a long time to come; and it is rather in a subsequent stage that most Bengali boys will be able to begin to work on these lines. The age 17-18, at which the intermediate course will end, is not too late to enter business-life; and we believe that the intermediate colleges might with advantage provide a course suitable for such boys, while at the same time generous in its range, and suitable as a preparation for university work.

45. What a business man in Bengal most wants in the young recruit to his office is, in the first place, an accurate knowledge of English—not a memory-knowledge of notes on *Sesame and Lilies*, but a practical command of the language as it is spoken and written to-day; this the intermediate course, as we have planned it, will give more thoroughly than it has ever hitherto been given. If

¹ General Memoranda, page 16.

it be thought desirable to give some special training in commercial correspondence,¹ a weekly lesson during the second year would easily provide it. Next he wants good arithmetic; and if the applicant has also a mastery of other branches of mathematics, so much the better. He wants also a good working knowledge of geography, in which Bengali boys are as a rule very deficient, and, if possible some science. If the candidate can write shorthand and use the type-writer, that will give him a great advantage; and if he has been initiated into the mysteries of book-keeping and accountancy, he will be the more welcome. But what the business man especially wants in his employé, and what will more than anything else help him to get on, is intelligence, alertness, honesty, and capacity to work easily with other people, and to understand orders clearly and express himself accurately and precisely—the sort of qualities cultivated in a good school, which places a proper value upon corporate life, and does not limit itself to preparing candidates for examination.

46. It is obvious that the intermediate college ought to be able to provide a course which would fully meet all these needs, and at the same time be a suitable preparation for a university career. What is needed is, in truth, neither more nor less than a good general education with a modern and practical bias. The course ought to include a sound training in commercial geography, and some introduction to economics—especially elementary descriptive economics, which implies some understanding of the processes of trade. It ought to include sound mathematics, especially higher arithmetic; and some training in book-keeping and accountancy, which is by no means a purely mechanical or unintelligent subject, might find a place in the course. With these would go modern history; and if the student should add Sanskrit (which the Marwari community recommend as an element in a commercial course) he will be the better prepared for university work, should he ultimately decide to enter upon a university course.

47. With an equipment such as is here outlined, the student would be a useful recruit in any business office. He would be equally well-equipped to take his place in the clerical services of various departments of Government, such as the Post Office.²

¹ Desired by the Marwari Community, General Memoranda, page 16.

² See Chapter XXVIII.

We believe that such a training as has been outlined would in fact form the best preparation for all but the higher and more specialised posts in Government service ; and we shall recommend, in another part of this report¹ that the intermediate examination should henceforth be recognised as the required qualification for all but a few of the higher Government posts. We do not mean that holders of degrees should be excluded from consideration. But we regard it as unfortunate that many hundreds of students should be drawn on, as they now are, to follow degree courses for which they are ill-fitted, merely because the possession of a degree is supposed to give them an advantage in applying for even minor Government posts.²

VIII.

48. In the foregoing paragraphs we have expressly avoided any attempt to specify with exactitude the content of the various alternative courses or groups of subjects which ought, in our judgment, to be provided for in the intermediate colleges. That must be the business of the Secondary and Intermediate Board, when it is established, and of its advisory committees ; and it may be assumed that the various alternatives will have to be modified from time to time, in accordance with changing needs, and in order to correspond with changes and improvements in the high schools. The aim of what we have written has been to illustrate the multiform ways in which the intermediate colleges may be made to meet a variety of needs neglected by the existing system, and to show how a vocational colour or bias can be given to their courses without in any way diminishing their value as sound* and liberal training or making them unsuitable as preparation for university courses.

49. It is, however, essential that all the alternative courses should be approximately equivalent in the demand which they will make upon the ability of the student. From this point of view it must be impossible to treat each subject as an equal unit ; to balance shorthand and typewriting, for example, against mathematics. This seems to us to be the main defect in the otherwise excellent scheme set forth by Mr J. C. Coyajee,³ to which we would

¹ See Chapter L.

² See Chapter XXVIII.

³ General Memoranda, page 366.

direct the attention of those who desire to see a project, very similar to that which we put forward, more fully wrought out.

50. It seems necessary to guard against the suggestion that every alternative course, or even the majority of the alternatives, should be offered in all the intermediate colleges. We should desire to see the colleges specialising to some extent; and while, in our judgment, almost every intermediate college ought, if possible, to provide a course for teachers, as well as the ordinary courses preparatory for the University, it would be natural that courses of the agricultural type should be provided only in a few colleges near experimental farms, and that commercial courses should be provided mainly in town centres.

51. In regard to the examination which must necessarily be provided at the end of the course, we have already shown¹ that it is possible to introduce in the intermediate colleges, because of their better organisation and their smaller numbers, improvements in the system of examination which should materially reduce the pressure upon the candidates, and enable them to concentrate their attention upon their subjects of study, instead of living in constant dread of the examination, and thinking of their work only as a preparation for it. We should deprecate the imposition upon the students of too heavy a burden of examinations, and we think that there should be some subjects of study in which no centralised examination should be imposed. This subject will be more fully discussed in a later chapter,² and need not be developed here.

IX.

52. In the intermediate college, as in the school and the university, the formal discipline of the class-room is but a part of the training which the student receives. Whether his needs in other respects are considered and provided for, or not, his bodily health is affected either for good or ill, his moral outlook is influenced, in one direction or another, his capacity for comradeship, loyalty and public spirit is strengthened or weakened, by the conditions under which he has to work during these critical and formative years of his life. It is neither wise nor safe to leave these things

¹ Chapter XXXI.

² Chapter XL.

to chance, as, for the most part, they have hitherto been left both in the schools and in the colleges of Bengal.¹

53. We therefore attach the greatest importance to the proper supervision and organisation of the physical well-being of the students, and to the cultivation of every possible means of strengthening corporate loyalty and discipline among them. We regard it as essential that every intermediate college should be provided, wherever possible, with adequate playgrounds; that there should not only be opportunities for games, but regular physical training; and that the students should have access to good medical advice.

54. Not less important is the provision of simple but healthy residential accommodation. In connexion with intermediate colleges in Calcutta the provision of hostels ought not, indeed, to be necessary on any large scale, because the Calcutta colleges (apart, perhaps, from those which devote themselves specially to commercial courses) ought to cater mainly for Calcutta boys, and we should regard it as a sign that the scheme was ill carried out if, once it is properly set going, any large number of mufassal boys who have not near relatives in Calcutta come into Calcutta for intermediate training. But at the mufassal centres, which will generally be at the administrative headquarters of the districts, it may be anticipated that a very large proportion of the students—in many cases the majority—will come from the villages of the district, and will require accommodation. This should be as cheap and as simple as possible, because, in mufassal areas, the importance of getting the maximum accommodation on to a given site is not, or need not be, so urgent as it is in Calcutta, if the sites are wisely selected; and simple hostels of the bungalow type, such as we saw at Gauhati or (in a still simpler form) at Daulatpur, become practicable. We urge that the provision of adequate hostel accommodation, and of proper hostel supervision by a staff of carefully selected superintendents, should be regarded as one of the first necessities when any new intermediate college is established.

55. All these requirements necessarily add to the cost of establishing and maintaining an intermediate college: since provision must be made for ample space, for residential buildings, for the salaries or allowances of hostel superintendents and of a well qualified physical director or instructor. But if the youth of Bengal is

¹ See Chapter XIX.

to be given a fair chance, all these things are necessary. Nor is it possible to charge high fees. We consider that the average fee-rate ought not to exceed Rs. 5 per mensem; though in some colleges, and for some special courses, a somewhat higher rate might reasonably be charged. We assume, also, in the following very rough estimates that about 10 per cent. of the students will probably be admitted without fee, and another 10 per cent. on half fees.

X.

53. We have made no attempt to estimate the cost of providing the necessary buildings for the establishment of an intermediate college: not only must the cost of sites vary from place to place, but it is obviously impossible to anticipate in how many cases, and to what extent, the necessary provision might be reduced by the utilisation of existing buildings in cases where the intermediate classes were either attached to an existing school, or where an existing college was devoted to this purpose. The Serampore College staff, which has furnished us with a very full and careful memorandum on the subject,¹ estimates the cost of land and buildings for a new collegiate school of 600 boys at over 8 lakhs, including some hostel accommodation; but the cost of land in Serampore is specially great because the college has a river frontage; and in most cases a much smaller amount would probably be sufficient.

57. Such an estimate, wrought out in some detail, will be found in an appendix; a summary of its main features will also be given in Chapter LII. The Serampore College staff² have also supplied us with an independent estimate. Our estimate is based upon the assumptions that in each intermediate college there will be a well paid head master, one or two western trained teachers with good salaries, and a staff on good rates of pay, sufficiently numerous to cover a fairly wide range of subjects and to make work in small classes possible. It provides, further, for working and administrative expenses, for a competent director of physical training in each college, and for the provision of allowances for hostel superintendents.

58. The result of these calculations, on the basis on which we have made them, is that each intermediate college would involve

¹ General Memoranda, page 333.

² *Ibid.*, page 335

the State (or private supporters) in a net annual outlay of about Rs. 50,000 or more for every college, after deducting fees; so that if, as might ultimately be the case, there were to be some forty intermediate colleges, the annual cost, apart from the initial charges of land, buildings and equipment, might be about twenty lakhs. We regard this as a reasonable expenditure, in view of the great value of the services which these institutions will be able to render to the community.

59. But there is another way of looking at the matter. Should a wealthy man desire to enrich permanently the intellectual resources of his native district, and to be remembered for ever as a patron of learning and the friend of aspiring youth, we imagine that he could do nothing better than to establish and endow an intermediate college, with hostels and playing fields, a library and laboratories. He could build it on a handsome scale, and endow it permanently so that it would be self-supporting, for twenty lakhs. That is a very large sum, which few of the rich men of Bengal could individually provide. But it is small in comparison with the continuous and ever growing return of human happiness, intellectual enlightenment and public advantage which it would yield.

60. We regard the creation of well-organised intermediate colleges in all parts of Bengal—united, in some cases, with the upper classes of high schools, and in others serving as the crown of all the high schools of their districts—as the most immediately valuable reform which can be undertaken in the educational sphere. To bring all the high schools up to a reasonable pitch of efficiency will take a generation, because the teachers have yet to be trained, and the funds that will be needed will be very large indeed. The provision of intermediate colleges is a relatively simple matter; to provide a sufficient number of reasonably good teachers for (say) thirty institutions is not impossible. And the creation of these institutions—provided that they are adequately equipped—will at once influence for good all the high schools and other secondary schools. It will supply many of the industries of Bengal with the trained recruits whom they need. It will do more than anything else to solve the university problem, by withdrawing for a more appropriate kind of training the immense number of ill prepared boys who now fill the university class-rooms, and by sending up to the universities a stream of students really capable of profiting by their instruction. It will go far to solve the complex and difficult

problems, moral and social, which have been created by the drift of thousands of boys into the dangerous conditions of city life, where they are unguided and uncontrolled.

61. But the advantages which we anticipate from this reform will be lost if it is not seriously carried out on an adequate scale. If an attempt is made to organise these colleges—as most of the high schools and most of the colleges have in the past been organised—on a cheap basis, and to be satisfied with the creation simply of a new coaching organisation for a new set of examinations, the change which we propose will do no good; it may even do harm. From the outset the standard must be kept high. It will be no kindness to the youth of Bengal, but very much the reverse, to create cheap and bad institutions on the plea that the money for adequate organisations is not forthcoming; for the influence of the bad will degrade the better, and there will be a return to the vicious circle in which Bengal now finds herself, and from which escape is so difficult. To Government and people alike we appeal, if they adopt these proposals, to adopt them with the serious resolution that this new educational grade shall not be permitted to be ruined.

CHAPTER XXXIII.¹

THE UNIVERSITY OF DACCA.

I.—The existing schemes for establishing a university at Dacca.

1. The scheme for the creation of a university of Dacca started in 1912 has had infinite pains spent on it, and the various and complex plans elaborated for the legal and material constitution of the University have been referred to us for consideration and report.

Two main factors may be clearly distinguished in the origination of the scheme : first and foremost, the desire of the Musalmans of Eastern Bengal to stimulate the educational progress of their community, and secondly, the desire of the Government of India to create a new type of residential and teaching university in India, as opposed to the present affiliating type. To these must be added a third factor of especial importance, the desire of the Government to relieve the congestion of the University of Calcutta.

To arrive at any clear understanding of the present position in regard to the Dacca scheme, with the multiplicity of reports which have accumulated under changing conditions, arising in part from public and official criticisms of the original proposals, in part from the financial stringency produced by the war, a brief historical survey is necessary. But we shall limit that survey to those statements, both in regard to principles of constitution and to educational features of the schemes proposed, which seem to us of major importance.

It is to be remembered throughout that Dacca College, a Government college, is the most important and best equipped in the mufassal; that there is in Dacca another 'first-grade' college aided by Government and affiliated to the University of Calcutta, the Jagannath College; that Dacca, a town of about 110,000 inhabi-

¹ For the sake of brevity we shall in this chapter refer to the Report of the Dacca University Committee (Bengal Secretariat Book Depôt, Calcutta, 1912) as the 'Dacca Report.' The references to evidence are all taken from the replies to Question 4 of our questionnaire, except where otherwise indicated.

tants, was the capital and administrative centre of the province of Eastern Bengal and Assam from 1905 until the territorial readjustment of 1st April 1912 ; that the population of that province was predominantly Muslim ; that the education of the Musalmans in that province, though it had made progress during the period just defined, was in a backward condition at its close, and is so still at the present time.

2. In an address presented to the Viceroy (Lord Hardinge) at Dacca on 31st January, 1912, a number of Muslim representatives of Eastern Bengal and Assam placed certain proposals before him with the object of safeguarding the interests of the Muslim community. They pointed out that the Musalmans had not taken advantage of Government educational institutions to any extent comparable with the Hindus, and they expressed their doubts whether the modification of the partition of Bengal might not retard the educational progress of their community. In his reply, Lord Hardinge said that the Government of India realised that education was the true salvation of the Muhammadans and that the Government of India, as an earnest of their intentions, would recommend to the Secretary of State the constitution of a university at Dacca. On the 2nd February, 1912, a communiqué was published stating the decision of the Government of India to recommend the constitution of a university at Dacca.

3. On 16th February, 1912, a deputation headed by Dr. (now Sir) Rash Behary Ghose waited on Lord Hardinge and expressed apprehension that the creation of a separate university at Dacca would be in the nature of 'an internal partition.' In reply, Lord Hardinge said that no proposals which could lead to the internal partition or division of Bengal would meet with the support of the Government of India ; and he added that from the fact that he announced the intention of the Government in regard to Dacca to a deputation of Muhammadans it did not follow in any way that the new university would be a Muhammadan university ; it would be a university open to all—a teaching and a residential university.

4. The Government of India, after receiving the general assent of the Secretary of State, announced their decision to establish a university at Dacca in a letter to the Government of Bengal dated 4th April, 1912, and invited that Government to submit a complete scheme with a financial estimate. The letter stated that the

Government considered the creation of new universities as an important factor in educational progress and that it was desirable that these universities where possible should be of the teaching and residential type, binding together the colleges of a single town or a single circumscribed area. The University of Dacca was in the first place "to serve as an example and test of the new type of university and in the second to afford some relief to the congested state of the Calcutta University." The letter also drew attention to the particularly high level of general intelligence of Hindu middle-class population of Eastern Bengal, and to the desirability of making accessible to the Musalmans of Eastern Bengal a university in which they could have a voice (there being only six Muslim members on the Calcutta University Senate out of a total of 100, excluding *ex-officio* members) with a view to increasing the number of students of the Muslim community in the college classes. The letter further suggested that there might be a Faculty of Islamic Studies in the University.

5. On 27th May, 1912, the Government of Bengal published a resolution in regard to the proposed University and appointed a committee of thirteen members with Mr. R. Nathan, as President, to frame a scheme. The resolution emphasised the desire of the Government of India that "the university should be of the teaching and residential and not of the federal type,"¹ and that "it should bind together the colleges of the city and should not include any college which is beyond the limits of the town."

6 The Committee acted with great promptitude and thoroughness. It obtained the advice of 25 special sub-committees, and in the following autumn submitted its report to the Government of Bengal with plans of the proposed buildings and estimates of capital expenditure amounting to 53 lakhs² and of recurring expenditure amounting to 13 lakhs; and made suggestions in great detail as to the work of the University and its courses of studies.

¹ To avoid misunderstanding, it may be pointed out that both in the official documents and in the evidence relating to the University of Dacca the term 'federal university' is occasionally used as a term equivalent to and interchangeable with the term 'affiliating university.'

² This estimate was subsequently increased by the Public Works Department to Rs. 67,11,736.

7. The main outlines of the scheme may be summed up as follows :—

(a) *Relation to Government.*—The University was to be a State university maintained by the Government and staffed by Government officers. The Director of Public Instruction was to be the “ official Visitor, with full powers to inspect all colleges and departments.”

(b) *Colleges.*—The college was to be the unit of university life, and the expansion of the University was to be provided for by an increase in the number of colleges. The number of students in any college was not to exceed 600 ; and the scheme provided for the residence of 2,890 students in seven colleges—the Dacca, Jagannath, Muhammadan, Women’s, ‘ Well-to-do,’ and Teachers’ Colleges. The Muhammadan College was to provide for Islamic studies. The scheme also provided special university departments of science, engineering, law and medicine and of post-graduate studies in arts and science. The students of these departments were to reside in the above named colleges. The Committee decided that there was no scope at Dacca for an agricultural institution of university grade, but suggested the foundation of an agricultural school in connexion with the Government farm.¹

(c) *Teaching.*—The Committee recommended that the entire teaching in science, law, medicine and engineering and the post-graduate teaching in arts should be conducted by the University in one place. They proposed that the intermediate teaching in arts should be carried on by the several colleges independently and that the teaching for the B.A. pass and honours degrees should be conducted by the colleges, with inter-collegiate arrangements. Tutorial classes in groups of 20 were recommended for B.A. pass students.

(d) *Staff.*—The scheme divided the majority of the members of the staff, according to the salaries, into the four classes set out in the table below :—

- (i) Members of the Indian Educational Service (with four professors to be specially recruited at an average salary of Rs. 1,800 a month).
- (ii) Members of the Provincial Educational Service.
- (iii) Members of the Subordinate Educational Service.
- (iv) Junior assistants (to be young graduates appointed on short terms of office with fixed salaries).

The four principals of colleges were not included among the regular staff ; they each were to receive the pay of a professor, together with an allowance of Rs. 200 a month.

The members of the staff in the arts departments, with the exception of a certain number of professors, directly under the University, were to be definitely divided between the colleges, but the members belonging to other departments were to be allowed to elect to which college they would belong, subject to the approval of the colleges in question and the university authorities. Every member of the staff was to belong to a college.²

¹ Dacca Report, Chapters III and IV.

² *Ibid.*, Chapter X.

Total of staff recommended by the Dacca University Committee.

Department.	Indian Educational Service or rank approximate thereto. ¹	Provincial Service or rank approximate thereto. ¹	Subordinate Service or rank approximate thereto. ¹	Junior assistants.	TOTAL.
Arts	14	30	7	25	76
Science	8	13	17	9	47
Arts or Science (4 Principals)	4	4
Islamic Studies	3	5	8
Law	3	5	8
Medicine	1	1	1	..	3
Engineering	5	4	5	..	14
Teaching	1	3	3	..	7
College for Women	3	2	2	5	12
College for the 'Well-to-do' classes	3	4	2	2	11
TOTAL	45	67	37	41	190

The average number of students per teacher, under the scheme, taking all the colleges and departments of the University together, was 15.2, and the average for the students of arts and science departments only was 18. (The maximum proportion recommended in 1906 by the Calcutta University Committee on mufassal colleges was 15.)

(e) *Islamic Studies*.—The Department of Islamic Studies was to provide university instruction for the students of the reformed madrassahs which were to be established in Bengal on the recommendation of the Madrassah Reform Committee,² the object being to produce Arabic-scholars with a thorough knowledge of English. The Department was to be organised by a European professor with an average salary of Rs. 1,000 a month.³

(f) *Engineering*.—The Committee, at the instance of the Government of Bengal (which had at that time decided to remove the Civil Engineering

¹ The report is not explicit in regard to the relationship of a number of the teachers to the services, and it would appear from Appendix X and the sections which it summarises that in all the categories except that of the College for the 'Well-to-do Classes' some teachers, and especially senior teachers, were to be recruited under special conditions. No accurate classification of the staff proposed by the Committee could be compressed into a small space, but the headings adopted in the above table give a general idea of the classes into which the staff proposed was divided.

² Chapters VI, para. 60, and XVI, paras. 65-73.

³ Dacca Report, Chapter XIX.

College from Sibpur) discussed the question of establishing a civil engineering college at Dacca, and recommended the establishment of such a college as one of a group of three technological institutions, of which the others were to be the existing Engineering School, and an industrial institute to be created in accordance with the recommendation of a conference held at Dacca in 1909. Of these institutions, the college alone was to form part of the University; the other two were to be under the proposed Department of Industries.¹

(g) *Medicine*.—Arrangements were to be made for a medical department admitting 50 students a year and teaching them up to the standard of the first M.B. examination of the Calcutta University, which the Committee thought might be done with slight additions to the staff of the existing Medical School. The University was to conduct its own first M.B. examination, which was to be recognised by the University of Calcutta, all students who had passed being entitled to admission to the Calcutta Medical College. The Department was ultimately to be developed into a full medical college.

(h) *Teachers' College*.—Dacca University Teachers' College was to provide instruction for 80 students. The college was to provide—

- (1) a one year's course for an annual entry of 50 students leading to a diploma in teaching,
- (2) a two years' course for an annual entry of 15 students leading to the degree of B.T.

The college was to be developed from the existing Training College; it was to be removed to a site in the south of Dacca, in close touch with six large high schools (for which a scheme had been framed) and these were to serve as practising schools. While the college would be at a considerable distance from the university buildings, it was hoped that the students would become members of the university societies and take part in university athletics and that the university professors not attached to the Training College would give occasional lectures to the students.²

(i) *Law*.—The Committee recommended, as a compromise between opposing views, that "while the teaching of law should be entirely under the Dacca University, students should be examined by, and receive their degrees from, the University of Calcutta, which should accept for examination any student duly presented by Dacca." Provision was to be made for an annual entry of 60 in each of the three years of the course.³

(j) *College for Women*.—The Committee recommended the establishment of a college for women with hostel accommodation for 40 students. The college was to provide at the outset admission for about 12 students every year, but was expected to increase in numbers. The course pursued was to include domestic subjects, and in all other subjects was to be identical with that for men. All the professors of the college were to be women.⁴ The new college and the Eden High School for Girls were to be amalgamated as one institution under the name 'Eden College and High School for Girls;' but while the high school was to continue as a *purdah* school, it was thought impossible to enforce an equally strict seclusion in the college,

¹ Dacca Report, Chapter XX.

² *Ibid.*, Chapter XXIII.

³ *Ibid.*, Chapter XXII.

⁴ *Ibid.*, Chapter XXI.

and contiguous but separate buildings with separate entrances were therefore to be provided.¹

(k) *Entrance qualification.*—The Committee considered that for the present the matriculation certificate of Calcutta should remain the sole general entrance qualification in arts and science for Dacca, but did not wish the decision to be regarded as final; they thought the matter might well be reconsidered after experience had been gained of the working of the new University. The Committee recommended that schools in the town of Dacca should be inspected and recognised by the Dacca University.²

(l) *University authorities.*—The Committee recommended that the government of the University should be vested in a Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, Convocation and Council; that the Governor of Bengal should be the Chancellor, and the position to be assigned to him and to the Vice-Chancellor “should be as in other Indian universities.” The Vice-Chancellor was, however, to be a salaried officer appointed by Government.

(i) Convocation was to comprise about 140 members, including all the university professors, 25 graduates elected by the general body of registered graduates, 5 Muslim graduates elected by the registered Muslim graduates; and 10 Muslim graduates, residents of Bengal and Assam, and 21 other persons, of whom two-thirds were to be non-official, all appointed by the Chancellor. Convocation was to exercise legislative functions, subject to the control of Government.

(ii) The Council was to comprise about 20 members, consisting of (1) the Vice-Chancellor, acting as Chairman, (2) the Commissioner of Dacca, (3) the principals of the incorporated colleges, (4) six professors appointed by the Chancellor, including two ‘college professors,’ (5) six persons elected by Convocation from among its own members, at least two being Musalmans.

The Council was to be the supreme executive authority of the University and to be responsible for its general and financial administration.

(iii) There were also to be established by regulation (a) 16 special boards of studies, including engineering, medicine, and law, (b) a general board of studies, with the Vice-Chancellor as President, and (c) five other committees.

(m) *Site and buildings.*—The Committee proposed to devote to university purposes a splendid site of about 450 acres forming part of the civil station of the Government of Eastern Bengal and Assam at Ramna, and lying roughly speaking from 1 to 1½ miles north-west of the centre of Dacca. The site included the Dacca College, the new Government House, the Secretariat, the Government Press, a number of houses for officers and other minor buildings adjacent to it. On the south side of the railway, adjacent to the above site, lies a vacant space of 130 acres, which the Committee proposed to devote to playing fields. The report of the Committee contains elaborate plans. (Four ‘lay outs’ have been designed since the original one of the Committee, the latest being an attempt to bring all the teaching

¹ Dacca Report, Chapter XVII.

² *Ibid.*, Chapter V.

institutions 'except special ones like the Teachers' and 'Women's Colleges' within a circle with a radius not exceeding one-third of a mile.)

8. The Government of Bengal published the report¹ and invited the fullest criticisms from persons of all classes. After consideration of these criticisms detailed plans for the setting up of the University were framed and formed the subject of communications between the Government of Bengal, the Government of India and the Secretary of State. Definite action would presumably have been taken in connexion with the scheme but for the out-break of war in 1914 and the consequent stringency which led to a modification and postponement of the financial proposals.

9. On 7th March 1917, Government announced in the Imperial Legislative Council, in reply to a question by Nawab Syed Nawabaly Chaudhury, Khan Bahadur, that action in regard to the Dacca scheme would be postponed until the present Commission, then about to be appointed, had reported; and on 20th March the Nawab moved in the Imperial Legislative Council that—

"this Council recommends to the Governor General in Council that the necessary steps be taken to draft a bill for the establishment and incorporation of a university at Dacca, and introduce it into the Council at an early date."

The Nawab said that Eastern Bengal had been assured of a university as a 'compensation' for the territorial readjustment, and that serious misgivings were entertained when the war broke out lest the university question might be indefinitely shelved or postponed. He suggested that if the money difficulty were pressing effect might not be given to the whole scheme at once, though provision should be made 'for the fruition of the full scheme' in course of time; but that a small beginning should be made at once.

10. Sir Sankaran Nair, on behalf of the Government, stated that the Government were definitely pledged to the establishment of a university of Dacca and that although there had been doubts as to the scheme of the University, there had been no wavering on the part of Government on the main question; that a bill for its

¹ Report of the Dacca University Committee (Bengal Secretariat Book Depot, 1912.) The report was first published at a higher price, which was reduced to the nominal one of 4 annas. A note signed by Mr. J. H. Kerr, of the Government of Bengal, was issued on 23rd December 1912, stating that the Governor in Council would be glad to consider any criticism on the proposals of the report, received before 15th February.

establishment had already been drafted ; but that Government had delayed introducing the bill for several reasons. He said that it was the policy of Government that during the period of the war they should not pass a controversial measure through the Council by official majority ; that Government had found that certain proposals common to the Dacca Bill and the Patna Bill had proved controversial ; that those provisions had been modified in the case of the Patna Bill, so that it might go through as a non-controversial measure ; but that Government had not had time to consider whether corresponding modifications could be made in the Dacca Bill ; he added, further, that essential features in the Dacca scheme had been criticised as being opposed in principle to the report of the recent Royal Commission on the University of London, and also from an opposite standpoint ; and that according to the latter category of critics, the poverty of the classes in India who resort to university education, and the purely utilitarian character of the English education which they sought, rendered it undesirable to introduce in India the type of university advocated by the London Commission.

"The various differences between the castes, the classes and the religions make it difficult," they say, "to accept the ideal of a university where all the professors and all the students work with common ideals ; and the great barrier over which the classes are distributed who seek university education, these make it impossible, according to eminent educationists in India, to import into India that type of university which requires the colleges to be grouped at a centre."

Sir Sankaran Nair refrained from expressing an opinion on any of these criticisms ; he pointed out further that Government had by some been accused of sinister motives in advocating a residential type of university ; it was said that this policy was advocated "not really for the improvement of higher education in India, but with a view to check the expansion of such higher education." In these circumstances Government would not object to introduce a bill for the establishment of a university of Dacca, but the final consideration of the bill, even if introduced, would still have to wait for the report of the Calcutta University Commission.

11. In view of the statement of Sir Sankaran Nair the Nawab withdrew his resolution ; and at the conclusion of the session of the Imperial Legislative Council, on 23rd March 1917, His Excellency Lord Chelmsford, referring to Sir Sankaran Nair's speech, stated that he desired to confirm in the most distinct and unequivocal

vocal manner the promise made by Lord Hardinge that a university would be founded at Dacca.

12. We have had before us various official communications referred to by Sir Sankaran Nair in his speech ; but it would complicate the exposition of the situation unnecessarily to enter into an analysis of all the proposals and counter-proposals made at different times.

13. It will be convenient however to print the major portion of the last official document published on the Dacca scheme, namely, the *communiqué* of 26th November 1917 of the Government of Bengal which appeared early in December :—

“ In 1912 the Government of India announced their intention of founding a university at Dacca, which would be of a teaching and residential rather than of a federal type, and the Government of Bengal appointed a committee to frame a complete scheme. The report of the Committee was published in 1913, and criticisms and advice from the public were invited. After full consideration of the recommendations of the Committee and of the views expressed by the public, the scheme, with certain minor modifications, was submitted to the Secretary of State and received his general approval in December 1913. The approved scheme comprised the foundation of four new colleges (*viz.*, a new general college, a Muhammadan college, a women's college and an engineering college), the establishment of a medical institution, a department of Islamic studies and a Sanskrit department and the separation of the Law College from the Dacca College and its establishment as an independent law institution. The Teachers' College was to be transferred to a new site and the Jagannath College to the proposed university area, while a hostel was to be started for students of the well-to-do classes. The building of a library, a museum, an observatory, a gymnasium and several laboratories were contemplated. Other features of the scheme were the introduction of seminar teaching, the provision of reading rooms, the laying out of playing fields and the organisation of a university library, a university union and a professors' club.

Unfortunately the war broke out next year, and the necessity for stringent economy in all departments of public expenditure made it impossible to carry out the full scheme at once. It was accordingly proposed in 1915 that a commencement should be made on a reduced scale. The essential portions of the original scheme were retained, but it was proposed to omit for the time being the new college, the engineering college, the department of Sanskrit studies and the hostel for well-to-do students, the natural history museum, the observatory and some of the laboratories. At the same time it was proposed that the Muhammadan College should be placed in a part of the old Secretariat buildings and that the building project for the Women's College should be modified.

The financial difficulties caused by the continuance of the war precluded the execution of the reduced scheme, and in 1916 the Government of India asked the Government of Bengal to submit an estimate of the minimum expenditure necessary for starting a university which would be of the type

originally proposed and which would, at the same time, satisfy reasonable demands for the provision of collegiate education in excess of that available in the existing colleges at Dacca.

A further modification of the scheme was then proposed on lines which would admit of the gradual development of the University on those laid down by the Dacca University Committee and approved by the Government of India and the Secretary of State. It was suggested that the University should start with four colleges (besides the Teachers' Training College), viz., the Dacca College, the Jagannath College, the Muhammadan College and a new arts college. The establishment of the last was proposed in order to meet the demand for fuller provision for collegiate education in Dacca which had been caused by the increasing number of students. The new Arts College was to be started in temporary premises and the Muhammadan College in the old Secretariat buildings. The Dacca College was to remain as at present, the Law College being separated from it and accommodated in the old Secretariat buildings, while the Jagannath College was to be moved to the building erected for the Eastern Bengal and Assam Government Press. The hostel for well-to-do students, the college for women and the medical institution were to be deferred. The physics and chemistry laboratories were to be given accommodation in existing buildings, and more modest proposals were put forward in connection with physical education and the social life of the teachers and students. The capital cost of this last scheme was estimated at Rs. 11,25,000. The corresponding figures for the scheme originally approved and of the reduced scheme proposed in 1915 are Rs. 67,12,000 and Rs. 38,40,000, respectively.

In the meantime, the Government of India had decided to appoint a commission which would examine the question of university education in Bengal generally; and as expenditure on the proposed University had necessarily to be postponed on account of financial stringency, it was determined that the scheme should be referred to the Commission. Government, as explained by His Excellency the Viceroy at the meeting of the Imperial Legislative Council held on 23rd April 1917, adhere to their intention of instituting a university at Dacca; and they hope to receive from the Commission valuable advice regarding its constitution and management."

II.—Discussion of the main features of the scheme proposed by the Commission.

14. The question of the University of Dacca is covered by our general reference and is not limited in any way by specific terms therein. We have therefore regarded it as our duty to reconsider the question *de novo* both in regard to general policy and details. We have however naturally given very careful attention to the scheme put forward by the Dacca University Committee, on which we have invited expressions of opinion in our questionnaire;¹ we

¹ Part I of Question 4 reads: "If you have studied the Dacca University scheme, have you any suggestions to make with regard to it." (Part II of the question refers to the possibility of establishing universities in the mufassal elsewhere than at Dacca.)

have also examined the other official documents relating to the scheme which have been communicated to us ; and we shall set out, in so far as may seem required, the reasons which have led us to concur in, to amend, or to differ from the original proposals or those made subsequently in regard to the Dacca University.

15. It will be apparent from other portions of this report that even if the establishment of the University of Dacca had not been promised by the Government of India, the whole policy of university reorganisation in Bengal which we advocate would have led us to recommend the establishment of a university in that town either immediately or at an early date.¹ For if the scheme of decentralisation, of relieving the excessive burden of Calcutta, and of gradually creating separate universities in the mufassal is to be carried out, Dacca is clearly indicated as the first centre for the creation of such a university, and this for cogent reasons. The town itself, with about 120,000 inhabitants,² is the second in the Presidency ; it has the prestige of an ancient and historic capital ; it is now a commercial and manufacturing centre of growing importance ; it has better communications by rail and river than any other centre in the thickly populated districts of Eastern Bengal ; it is contiguous to Vikrampur, the home of so many of the *bhadralok* of Bengal ; and it already possesses two first-grade colleges, with a total of over 1,800 students, providing university teaching in arts, science and law. It also possesses institutions of a non-university character providing teaching in medicine and engineering, and a Government agricultural farm.³ Dacca College, the larger of the two colleges, is a Government institution with excellent buildings and is the best equipped of all the colleges in the mufassal ; it is placed on fine open park land (the Ramna) between one and two miles from the centre of the town, with admirable sites for building lecture-rooms, libraries, laboratories, hostels, and for providing play-grounds ; and on that site, owing to the very course of events which led to the proposals of the scheme, there are already a num-

¹ See especially Chapter XXXV, on Mufassal Colleges.

² According to the last census the population of Dacca was over 108,000 in 1911. Mr. S. G. Hart, the Collector of Dacca, estimates the present population at the figure stated in the text.

³ Dacca has recently been made the administrative centre for the Government Department of Agriculture.

ber of large and well constructed buildings, originally designed for, but no longer required by, the Government. These can now be utilised with the greatest economy for university purposes.

16. The Dacca district supplies over 900 students to the local colleges and sends another 1,491 to other colleges all over Bengal, while the Dacca Division and the neighbouring districts of Tippera supply altogether about 7,097 out of the total number of 27,290 students in the University of Calcutta.¹ Dacca is therefore already in the centre of a great student population, and there can be no doubt that increased and better provision for university education of a high order, besides tapping fresh sources of supply among the Muslim population, will attract an increased number of students from the neighbourhood and so relieve to some extent the pressure at Calcutta.

17. As a sign of existing public opinion in educated circles it may be interesting to mention that out of the 307 of our correspondents who replied to Question 4 of our questionnaire only 15 expressed views opposed to the establishment of the University of Dacca.

18. The chief determining factor in the decision of the Government to make Dacca the seat of a university was, doubtless, the desire to accede to the demand for further facilities for higher education for the Muslim population who form the majority in Eastern Bengal. It is one to which we naturally attach great weight; and we are entirely in sympathy with the wish of Government that the Dacca University should be used to the fullest possible extent as a means of encouraging the desire for higher education among the still backward Musalmans of this part of the province. On the other hand, we desire emphatically to endorse the view that the University should be open to all, and that it should be in no sense a sectarian university; nor do we believe that in this we differ from the wish of the representatives of the Muslim community.

19. Turning from these great issues, on which we believe that there can be no serious differences of opinion, we come to three

¹ There were in 1917-18, 1,633 students in the two colleges in Dacca, drawn from various districts, as follows:—Dacca 961, Bakarganj 80, Mymensingh 167, Faridpore 151, Tippera 274. It is significant to note that about half the students come from the Dacca district and more than one-third from the four neighbouring districts.

main features in which the University of Dacca was to differ from universities of the type existing in 1912—

- (1) The University was to be a unitary as opposed to a federal or affiliating university ; it was, like the older universities of England and the modern Universities of Manchester, Liverpool and Birmingham, to be associated with a particular city.
- (2) The University was to be a teaching and residential university. Speaking broadly, we emphatically endorse these two main features of the scheme.
- (3) The University was to be a Government institution. Here we differ from the proposal of the Dacca University Committee. We have elsewhere¹ expressed the view that while in our judgment the State ought to remain ultimately responsible for the inspection and supervision of higher education, there are many drawbacks to the system of direct and detailed State control. We propose for the University of Dacca an organisation corresponding in its chief features with that which we propose for the University of Calcutta, but simpler in structure because of the simpler functions which it will fulfil.

20. In two other important points our scheme also differs from that proposed by the Dacca University Committee :—

- (a) As indicated in Chapters XXXI and XXXII, we regard intermediate classes as belonging properly to school and not to university education, and we think it to the interest alike of the students and of the universities that these classes should be conducted in special institutions which we have called intermediate colleges. A certain number of such intermediate colleges should be created in Dacca without delay.²
- (b) The second point is connected with the first. The college, under the Dacca Committee scheme, was to be wholly responsible for the intermediate teaching ; but it was to be only partially responsible for the pass teaching for the degree, which was to be organised on an inter-

¹ Chapters XXVIII and L.

² See paras. 211-213 below.

collegiate system; and it was not to be responsible at all for honours or for any science teaching, which was to be conducted by the University. Under the terms of the Draft Bill prepared for the University the responsibility for post-intermediate teaching was to be transferred entirely to the University, an arrangement which seems to us based on sound reasons of economy and policy. By the removal of the burden of the intermediate classes from the University and, under the arrangement proposed, the college will, if our proposals are adopted, play a different part from that contemplated in the original scheme, though it will retain functions of vital importance in a residential university like Dacca. In order to avoid confusion of ideas we propose that the change (or partial change) of functions should be accompanied by a change of terminology and suggest that in the Dacca scheme the term 'hall' be substituted for the term 'college.' We shall develop in paragraphs 36-47 and 135-144 below our conception of the hall.

21. We shall in the first place discuss the criticism aimed at the proposal to make Dacca a unitary as opposed to an affiliating or a federal university, a matter in which we agree with the Dacca University Committee; and shall then deal with the main points in which our scheme differs from that of the Dacca Committee. While we adhere to the view of the Government of India that the University of Dacca should be a teaching and residential and not an affiliating university, we cannot overlook the fact that since the Dacca Committee reported a new type of university which is both teaching and affiliating has been founded at Patna. The Patna model has been advocated by some of our witnesses for two reasons, the first a desire to relieve the examinational congestion of Calcutta, the second, the presumed interests of other colleges in Eastern Bengal. With one exception, to which we shall draw attention, the proposals for making Dacca an affiliating university do not claim to be made in the interests of Dacca.

22. Dr. Hiralal Haldar of the Calcutta University and the City College puts the argument on behalf of Calcutta:—

"The Dacca University should be of the same type as the Patna University. It should of course, be a teaching university, but its proposed consti-

tution should be so modified as to allow of the affiliation of colleges in eastern and northern Bengal to it. This is necessary to give relief to the Calcutta University. It has become difficult for this University to examine properly and control the enormous number of students that appear at its matriculation and intermediate examinations. For example, so many examiners are appointed to look over the answer papers of thousands of candidates that it has become difficult to maintain the uniformity of the standard of examinations. A single university is no longer sufficient for the requirements of a province like Bengal."¹

Maulvi Khabiruddin Ahmed writes, in advocacy of the same policy²—

"the Calcutta University has become a huge and unmanageable examining body, and it is desirable to remove the congestion by cutting down its territorial limits"

and suggests that while the Dacca University should be an exclusively teaching and residential university so far as the colleges at Dacca are concerned it should have 'federal jurisdiction' over the colleges in Eastern Bengal.

23. Among some of our Muslim witnesses there is an impression that the colleges of Eastern Bengal would receive better treatment at the hands of Dacca than at those of Calcutta; and they combine this argument with that of the unwieldiness of Calcutta to press the claim that Dacca should be affiliating. The Muslim deputation whom we received at Rajshahi said in their address (section 9)³:—

"At present the Muhammadans, on account of their want of representation and of many incidents brought to notice, have no confidence in the Calcutta University and therefore we desire that Rajshahi College should be affiliated to the Dacca University which, as we are given to understand by Government, will specially look after the interests of Muhammadans. This University was promised to the deputation of Muhammadans of Eastern Bengal as a compensation for the loss of the separate province, and we are confident that this University will look after Muhammadan interests; we therefore press that all colleges in Eastern Bengal should be affiliated to the Dacca University. This will also relieve pressure on the Calcutta University which is at present unwieldy."

24. The influential Muslim deputation which we received at Calcutta urged a similar though not identical view.⁴ They emphasised "the utmost desirability of establishing teaching univer-

¹ Question 4. See also evidence on this point of Mr. Umes Chandra Haldar, and Mahamahopadhyaya Pramathanath Tarkabhushana.

² Question 4.

³ General Memoranda, page 218.

⁴ See Memorandum of Musalmans of Calcutta, para. 4, General Memoranda, page 219.

sities at Calcutta and Dacca and other places such as Chittagong, Rajshahi, Berhampur and Gauhati." They suggested, as a second alternative, if it seemed impossible to create teaching universities elsewhere than at Calcutta and Dacca, that a new university of the existing type, independent of Calcutta and Dacca, should be set up to control the mufassal colleges—to be called the University of Bengal. Their third alternative, which coincides with that of our previous witnesses, was that the colleges of Eastern Bengal should be affiliated to Dacca and not to Calcutta; but this suggestion was made subject to the proviso that the scheme would not in our opinion prejudice the legitimate duties of Dacca as a teaching university.

25. Nawab Syed Nawabaly Chaudhury goes further. He puts forward the separate treatment of the mufassal colleges of Eastern Bengal as the first consideration; he thinks that it will be difficult to reconcile the interests of the people with the best interests of Dacca University; and urges that if his proposal for separate controlling agencies for the eastern and the western mufassal colleges proves impracticable on financial grounds, then the—"colleges in Eastern Bengal, instead of being treated together with the colleges in Western Bengal under one university, should be affiliated to the Dacca University, even though, as a consequence, the efficiency of teaching might, to a certain extent, be impaired; for the people of Eastern Bengal strongly feel that the interests of their higher education would continue to suffer as before, if their colleges are not treated separately."¹

26. The one witness who appears to regard the power to affiliate colleges in Eastern Bengal (and Assam) as likely to be of benefit to the University of Dacca is Mr. J. R. Cunningham, the Director of Public Instruction for Assam.

"To grant it territorial jurisdiction," he writes, "would be to secure to it the widest charter of liberty and to afford to university education in India the largest hope of advancement and reform. To restrict the University to the city of Dacca and leave the Assam and mufassal colleges unattached will be to subject the growth and development of the new venture to all the adverse influences of competition"

and he draws a gloomy picture of the necessary acceptance by Dacca, in large measure, of "the most characteristic and detrimental conditions of the present state of things," including:—

"(1) Matriculation at 16 when the student, yet unripe for university study, is so ill-qualified in English as to render lectures difficult of understanding and to confirm the habit of study by memorising.

¹ Question 4.

(2) Extension of the ordinary university course to four, instead of three, years with a qualification at the end of the second year which serves as the goal for the mass of the students, thus occupying the energies of the University in work which is merely secondary and which should belong properly to the schools."

27. In Chapter XXXI we have recommended that the minimum standard for entrance should be the present intermediate standard, a standard which we hope to see raised not by a mere increase in the difficulty of the questions, but by the improved teaching in the intermediate colleges¹; and we also hope that the period of undergraduate studies will be the three years which Mr. Cunningham desires; so that at any rate some of the dangers which he foresees will be avoided. Mr. Cunningham fears that competition with Calcutta (unless Dacca is artificially fed by the affiliation with it of colleges from Eastern Bengal) will lead to a lowering of standards. The same fear was expressed in Great Britain when the modern universities were created from 1880 onwards. But those fears have not been realised; on the contrary the standards have steadily risen. We may point out that if it becomes known that a university gives cheap degrees, the holders of these degrees will soon find that they stand less chance in competitions for an appointment than graduates of more scrupulous universities and that the University itself will lose in popularity except with the weakest candidates; the best students will, in their own interests, both intellectual and worldly, go to the University which maintains not the lowest but the highest standards of teaching and of examination. If Dacca cannot compete in the open market and by fair means with Calcutta in the same way, that the new universities in Great Britain compete with London and the older universities and with each other, our scheme will have failed from the inside. But we do not think it will fail.

28. It would, in our judgment, be inadvisable to load the new University of Dacca with the burden of affiliation and the accompanying disadvantages of impaired efficiency recognised by Nawab Syed Nawabaly Chaudhury. Such a system would necessarily absorb time and energy on the part of the teachers and of the

¹ We have also recommended, Chapter XXXI, para. 55, that in exceptional cases students should be allowed to take the examination corresponding to the present matriculation at 15: but the minimum age of entrance to the University would be 17. As at present the average age of matriculation is 18½, the average age of entrance would be over 20.

administrative bodies at Dacca which should properly be devoted to the development of their own university; and so far as we are aware, none of the existing Dacca teachers have expressed any desire for it.¹ The affiliating nexus would tend to restrict the natural development of Dacca on its own lines; there would be a constant conflict between the legitimate claims of Dacca, the strongest centre, that it should be allowed to progress, and the equally legitimate claims of the weaker mufassal colleges that they should not be overpressed; and the fair settlement of these constantly occurring differences would require the creation of a complex administrative machinery for the drafting of syllabuses, the conduct of examinations and the adjustment of standards. We have found it necessary to provide such machinery in our scheme for the University of Calcutta.² To duplicate it in the case of Dacca would, in our judgment, be wasteful and unwise and would confer no corresponding benefit on the mufassal colleges in question. Moreover our tour in Eastern Bengal leads us gravely to doubt whether affiliation to Dacca would be welcomed by the majority of the colleges; there would certainly be serious, possibly bitter, differences of opinion in regard to such affiliation. As for the interests of Muslim students throughout Bengal, we have had them so constantly in mind that we do not think they will suffer either in the University of Calcutta or Dacca under the schemes which we have proposed. For the grounds above stated, we reject wholly the proposals for making Dacca an affiliating as well as a teaching university.

29. Some of our correspondents have proposed that Dacca should be made a 'federal' university. It is of the essence of a federal university in the sense in which the term is most commonly used that all its units should take some share (though not necessarily an equal share) in the management of the University as a whole. But most of our correspondents who use the word 'federal' do not appear to contemplate any departure from the ordinary methods of affiliation prevailing in India,³ under which the affiliated college

¹ See evidence in response to Question 4 of Mr. F. C. Turner, Principal, Dacca College, of Rai Lalitmohan Chatterjee Bahadur, Principal, Jagannath College, Dacca, of Rai Bhupatinath Das Bahadur, of Maulvi Mohammad Irfan, and of Messrs. Walter A. Jenkins and G. H. Langley of Dacca College.

² Chapters XXXIV, XXXV, and XXXVII, especially Chapter XXXVII, paras. 76-82.

³ Cf. evidence of Mr. Birendra Kumar Datta, who suggests that Dacca "should be of federal type, all the secondary schools and colleges in the Dacca and Chittagong

has no claim whatever to a voice in university management.¹ Federal universities may, no doubt, be useful in certain conditions, when college units of approximately equal strength are situated in different towns within fairly easy reach of one another. But the Dacca colleges and the other colleges of Eastern Bengal do not bear this relation to one another, and no one has put forward a considered scheme for the creation of a federal university in the sense above defined and embracing all these colleges. To any such scheme of federation we should feel objections no less strong than those we have expressed to the scheme for an affiliating university at Dacca.

30. It was natural that the Dacca University Committee in planning a teaching and residential university should propose that the unit both for teaching and residential purposes should be the college. They had in mind not only the older universities in England, but the traditions of Indian experience since 1857. We have seen in Chapter III how the idea of a college preceded in India the idea of a university, and how the University was created as an organism external to and controlling the colleges by means of curricula and regulations and examinations, but without any teaching functions. Without repeating details unduly we may recall the main facts necessary for the understanding of the policy of the Dacca University Committee.

31. The Universities Commission of 1902 referred to the narrowly restricted powers of the then existing universities and stated that there was a very general desire that those powers should be enlarged and that all universities should be recognised as teaching bodies.² They passed over the contention put before them that the indirect control over teaching exercised by the existing universities entitled them to be called teaching universities; and explained that in usual parlance a 'teaching university' denotes a university 'which makes direct provision for teaching by appointing its own profes-

Divisions being affiliated to it," and Kumar Kshitindradeb Rai Mahasai who proposes that Dacca should "exercise a federal control like that of an examining body" over the mufassal colleges of Eastern Bengal. Dr. D. N. Mallik (who does not suggest such control) pleads for the federal universities on the ground that while single college universities are desirable, there is not the teaching strength necessary to man them at present in Bengal.

¹ See footnote to para. 5 above.

² Report, para. 21.

sors and lecturers.' The Commission, (who did not contemplate the possibility of any departure from the Indian affiliating system) pointed to the fact that the affiliated colleges were spread over a wide area, that it was not easy to see how their students could be brought together to attend university lectures, and that the better among them already made adequate provision for the courses of instruction leading up to the B.A. and B.Sc. degrees, so that any intervention of the University at this stage appeared unlikely to be profitable. They very naturally regarded the question whether and how far the universities would be able to make direct provision for teaching as one of considerable difficulty; especially as they saw no source from which the universities could hope to obtain the funds which would be required 'for the entertainment of a staff of university professors in every branch of learning.'

Their conclusion on this point was as follows:—

"We think it expedient that the undergraduate students should be left in the main, to the colleges, but we suggest that the universities may justify their existence as teaching bodies by making further and better provisions for advanced courses of study. The University may appoint its own lecturers and provide libraries and laboratories. It would also be proper that the University should see that residential quarters are provided for students from a distance."¹

They suggested that the colleges co-operating in the scheme should contribute to its cost, that in this way central schools of advanced study might in time be formed, and that it was an advantage of the scheme that it could be worked out gradually without the great initial expense involved in the creation of a complete professoriate.

32. The Dacca Committee, writing in 1912, were justifiably bolder and more explicit in their view of what the Indian Government and public regarded as the idea of a university. Between 1902 and 1912 public opinion had advanced; and the ideas latent in the report of 1902 were developed with a new fulness and warmth by the Dacca Committee. "There are," they say in the first chapter of their report—

"abundant indications that the Government and the people have alike come to realise that a university, if it is to satisfy in full measure the requirements of the educated classes, must denote more than mere examination, must undertake more than mere control, must offer more than mere instruction. It must be an institution in which a true education can be obtained—the training of the mind, body and character; the result 'not a book but a man.'"

¹ *Loc. cit.*, para. 24.

But for the Committee of 1912, as for the Commission of 1902, the college was to be the unit of university life for teaching as well as for residence. Indeed they regard the separateness of the colleges as of positive advantage to the university as a whole.

"We anticipate", they wrote, "that each college of the Dacca University, whether it is one now in active working, or yet to be founded as part of this scheme, will have its special characteristics and develop in its own way. The individuality and variety of the colleges is as much a part of the scheme as the completeness and community of the new university life. There will be, in a way never before known in India, a healthy interaction of the colleges upon each other and a heightening of the separate and limited life of each by participation in the larger and fuller life of the University. At the same time, while the University is to be distinct from and greater than the colleges, it is to be made up of them; and the health and vigour of the whole will depend on the health and vigour of the parts. It is in the individual college also that the most intimate part of the collegiate life will be lived; in the college the corporate spirit must first develop so that loyalty to the college may expand into loyalty to the University. The college is, as heretofore, to be an organic whole, and, within its limits, complete; the new departure is this, that the college instead of being mechanically joined with other affiliated institutions to a university centre, which is organised without any closer relation to them than this affiliation, is now to be organically bound with other colleges into a higher and more complex unit, the teaching and residential University."¹

33. Nevertheless, on obvious grounds of economy, the Committee were obliged to depart widely from these general proposals when they came to frame their detailed scheme. The entire teaching in Islamic studies, science, law, medicine, and engineering and the post-graduate teaching in arts was to be conducted by the University. The teaching for the B. A. degree, both pass and honours, except the pass teaching in English, was to be organised upon an inter-collegiate basis, that is virtually by the university as a whole. Thus only the intermediate teaching in arts was to be entrusted to the independent care of the colleges. Yet each college was, according to the plans, to be equipped with a large set of class-rooms, for use by degree students as well as by intermediate students. Corresponding in some measure to the distribution of teaching between the college and the university there was to be a university staff and distinct college staffs of teachers.

34. With the removal of the intermediate teaching from the purview of the University the case for making the colleges teaching units appears to us to disappear; and since this view was indepen-

¹ Dacca Report, page 20.

dently* arrived at by Government in respect of post-intermediate teaching we need not perhaps argue the matter in any great detail. In a university of the size of Dacca the economy and convenience of making provision for the teaching by means of a single authority is apparent.¹

35. It may be thought by some that the appointment of teachers by the governing bodies of the colleges is a valuable element in university organisation which our proposed amendment of the Dacca scheme would sweep away. We may point out, therefore, that this power of appointment was not, and we think rightly not, assigned by the Dacca University Committee to the governing bodies of the colleges. In a university of the size of Dacca, the most effective and economical way of instituting and making the teaching appointments is by means of a central organisation, and we have preserved that idea of the original scheme; though, as will be seen, we propose to substitute as the central organisation the University itself for Government except for a certain number of appointments.² The teaching unit should, in our view, be not the college, but the university department, and our substitution of the University for the college as the organising authority for the teaching, though it may seem a large amendment at the first blush, only extends to the whole university curriculum the pro-

¹ Mr. E. E. Biss, of the Indian Educational Service, who has given so much time and attention to the Dacca scheme, strongly advocates the centralisation of all teaching above the intermediate standard, and of its being put directly under the control of the university authorities but he nevertheless advocates the retention of the title 'college' for the 'unit of university life.' Dr. Nares Chandra Sen Gupta, Vice-Principal of the Dacca Law College, although he does not, like Mr. Biss, contemplate separate treatment of the intermediate teaching, nevertheless advocates the disappearance of the college from the Dacca scheme on the grounds of economy. Rai Lalitmohan Chatterjee Bahadur, Principal of the Jagannath College, on the contrary urges that the individuality of the colleges teaching the bachelor courses should be preserved by each college specialising in certain subjects or departments of subjects and being specially staffed for the purpose as well as by other means. We think that it would be difficult in planning the University to decide on what principle such specialisation could be introduced at the outset. But we think that in course of time different halls may come to be informally identified, more or less, with special studies, in the same way as some Cambridge colleges are so identified and this would have advantages in the organisation of tutorial work. We should be sorry, however, to see this principle pushed to extremes. One of the advantages of the residential system is the contact of students pursuing different studies.

² Subsequently to the publication of the original scheme proposals were made for the inclusion of private missionary institutions in the University of Dacca. For a discussion of this matter, see below paras. 160-166.

posals made by our predecessors in regard to the major and higher part of it.

36. But while we think the University should be responsible for the organisation of formal university teaching, the college unit remains of the first importance in a residential university. Its functions have been well indicated in the following passage from the evidence of the Serampore Staff:—

“We desire....to express our belief in the main ideal embodied in the [Dacca] scheme, viz., the residential system in collegiate and university life. But we consider that considerable care is necessary in the application of this system to Indian university conditions. Our aim should be not to duplicate Oxford and Cambridge conditions on the one hand, or Scotch, American and German conditions on the other. In the former case the tendency perhaps is for the residential college to regard itself too much in the light of an independent unit, and to think too little of the claims of the university as a whole. In the latter case the university is everything, and residential arrangements for students are a purely secondary concern. In our judgment, a combination of these systems is desirable for India. The individual college in India is not strong enough to stand so much alone as an Oxford or Cambridge college does. There is needed a concentration of academic resources such as we have in Edinburgh, and in most modern universities. On the other hand, experience has shown that Indian education greatly benefits by a wise and sympathetic application of the residential system to Indian conditions. All this is possible if the colleges take the form of academic hostels, or halls of residence providing tutorial help and supervision for their students.”

37. Our own views on the general conditions of student life as they exist in Bengal to-day, and the general changes which we propose with regard to hostel systems are set out in Chapters XIX and XXXIX, and we can only deal briefly with the matter here. We accept, with certain modifications, the general residential organisation proposed by the Dacca University Committee.

“We consider,” they wrote, “that all students not living with parents or duly authorised guardians should reside in college....No students’ messes or non-collegiate hostels should be permitted to exist in connexion with the new University; even the permission to live with an authorised guardian must be carefully regulated and controlled, since laxity in this respect may easily defeat the object of the residential system. A student should not be permitted to join a college and become a member of the University until the question of his residence has been settled. Residence except in his own home should be allowed only on special conditions: the student must be expressly confided to the care of the person with whom he is to reside; the latter having been interviewed by the college authorities and approved as a fit and suitable guardian must formally assume charge and responsibility. In admitting students preference should be given up to the limit of accommodation to those who intend to reside in college. Fears have been entertained that the expense of residing in hostels will be so great as to deter students of

average means from entering the University. If the proposals [of the Committee]...commend themselves to the Government, these fears will prove groundless and none but the very poorest will experience any difficulty owing to the expense of hostel life. For th's class scholarships and free studentships should be provided, and private liberality called into play."¹

38. The Dacca University Committee estimated that of the students in the four 'arts colleges'² for men, 1,500 would be 'in residence' and 560 would reside with their parents or approved guardians.³ The question of poor Muslim students is one of especial importance in connexion with Dacca. The Dacca Committee estimated that of the 320 students to be attached to the 'Muhammadan College,' 100 would live with their families or approved guardians. Of these they say that—

"poor madrassah students are not infrequently housed and supported by charitable persons under the 'jagir' system, and consequently many will not be able to live in college. It will be the duty of the authorities of the 'Muhammadan College' to see that those who live, in jagirs or otherwise, outside the college are properly looked after by responsible persons."

39. The Committee obviously contemplated in the same way that the 'Jagannath College' would be attended by a relatively large number of poor students, and this view was put forward by Rai Lalitmoan Chatterjee Bahadur, the Principal of the College, in his evidence before us. The Committee estimated that 200 out of a total of 540 students of that college would be in residence; but they suggested that if possible the margin should be reduced by the provision of further hostel accommodation. They added:—

"We attach the utmost importance to the principle that as large a proportion of the students as possible should be in residence, since it is only on such students that the full benefits of university life can be conferred; in each college additional hostel accommodation should from time to time be provided to the fullest extent to which it can be utilised."

40. We adhere to the view expressed previously that residence with relatives and guardians is both natural and in many cases healthy,⁴ and take up an intermediate position between that of

¹ Dacca Report, page 70.

² The Dacca College, New College, Jagannath College and Muhammadan College.

³ The report of the Dacca Committee has been misunderstood on this point by a certain number of witnesses; thus Mr. Muraly Dhar Banerjee urges as an amendment to the Dacca scheme that 'residence should not be compulsory upon those who are able to live with their families and natural guardians;' and Rai Sri Nath Roy Bahadur makes the same plea.

⁴ Chapter XIX, para. 7.

the Dacca University Committee and the position of Sir Gooroo Dass Banerjee, who while admitting that a residential university has advantages, and accepting the view that it should be tried at Dacca, over-states, we think, its drawbacks.

"A residential university", says Sir Gooroo Dass, "is more adapted for physical and intellectual education than a non-residential university by reason of its being able to provide better teachers and appliances and more regular supervision than what students can secure if left to themselves, and by reason of its relieving students from the trouble of looking after their board and lodging, and ensuring for them a certain measure of comfort. But it is less adapted for moral and religious education by reason of that very excess of help, assurance of comfort, and regularity of supervision, which are less helpful in training men for the rough world outside the college walls, where they have to be resourceful in emergency, to struggle patiently and cheerfully with adversity, and to accept the inevitable with calm resignation to a Will that is inscrutable and supreme. Living with parents or guardians, or in small messes under suitable occasional supervision, is far more elastic, gives students far better opportunities of mixing with human beings as human beings, and not merely as students, and is far more conducive to the growth of those moral and spiritual qualities so necessary for the world, than the rigid routine and dead level uniformity of life in a large hostel, where the largeness in the number of boarders must make discipline, to a great extent, more mechanical than personal. Moreover, differences of caste, creed, and colour may create unforeseen difficulties in this country. Then, again, judging from facts, it cannot be said that the graduates of the non-residential Scottish and German universities compare unfavourably with those of the residential universities of England. But I need not pursue the point any further for my present purpose, which is only to caution advocates of the residential system against being too sanguine, and against seeking to enforce it everywhere. Let us wait and watch how it works at Dacca."

41. We have described in Chapter XIX¹ what the 'elasticity' of living in small messes under occasional supervision means. We need not repeat our description. We have also pointed out that guardianship often involves the 'sweating' of a student who acts as a tutor; and it may be well to refer again here to the evidence of the Principal of the Jagannath College, Dacca² :—

"In Bengal college students live either with their parents or other natural guardians or in hostels where they are under more or less adequate superintendence and control or in 'messes' where they are left much more free, or as private tutors in the houses of people. These last usually get only their food for teaching one or more schoolboys and the guardianship exercised by the master of the house is only nominal. The conditions of residence in 'messes' and as private tutors are not healthy, morally or physically."

¹ Paras. 29-35.

² Rai Lalitmohan Chatterjee Bahadur, Question 17.

42. We are convinced that it is only in rare cases that students living with persons other than near relatives are able to do justice to their work ; we hope that the 'jagir' system will be reduced to the narrowest limits and that provision will be made in the halls for all poor and deserving students (other than those living with near relatives), by a suitable system of stipends and scholarships. The examples of Scotland and Germany, where suitable and respectable lodgings for students are abundant, quoted by Sir Gooroo Dass, do not move us so much as the actual conditions of Bengal ; we have already referred to the evidence of the Serampore College on this point. And if Sir Gooroo Dass idealises the 'mess' and many of the guardians, we think that he undervalues the hostel. We cannot accept his presentation of life at a hostel as being one of 'rigid routine and dead level uniformity.' That is far removed indeed from the happy and varied life as we know it in English colleges and university hostels, from the life that we have seen in residential colleges in India like Aligarh, Serampore, Bankura, or St. Paul's, Calcutta, in which the hostel is not a barrack surrounded by houses, but a real centre of social life, of college societies, of games, of that communal organisation on a small scale which, because it brings students into intimate contact with many of their fellows and equals, is in some ways both a fuller and a severer training for life than the family circle.

43. Nor can we accept the view that the hostel is necessarily less well suited for moral and religious training than any home. There are no doubt homes which provide a quiet moral and intellectual atmosphere, created by the loving care of parents and close relatives, which no hostel can rival. From such homes in Dacca we do not propose to take any student away. There are others from which students may wish to come, without any kind of compulsion, to the ordered life of the hostel. And we think that that life should not only be an ordered, but for those whose parents desire it, or who desire it for themselves, a religious life. We look forward to religious training being given in the hostels as an essential part of the communal life ; and in the Muslim Hall there should be the daily prayers. But moral training must with all young people be largely a matter of example rather than of formal teaching or sermon.¹ It will be the aim of the University to place both the

¹ In regard to the question of definite religious instruction, see Chapter XIX, paras. 135-140.

hostels and the halls, into which we propose that the hostels should be grouped, under the headship of men of high moral character, who will exert on their pupils that kind guidance which cannot be mathematically defined, not because the ideas on which it rests are vague, but because they lie too deep for words; because such guidance implies a sense of rightness of conduct directed, as occasion arises, to the multiple and varied circumstances of students of different temperament, upbringing and natural inclinations. It would be more easy to point to such or such a man as the ideal head of a hall or a hostel than to prescribe the character which he must bring to his task, if he is to influence the little world under him effectively and fruitfully. In practice we know that such men are to be found, and we trust that they will be found to guide the student communities of Dacca.

44. We have spoken of the social, the moral and the religious sides of life in the university halls and hostels. These halls and hostels will also play an important intellectual part in the University, though a less formal one than the colleges contemplated by the Dacca Committee; and in two ways. In the first place, we think that, with possibly a few exceptions, each university teacher should be attached to a hall (or hostel) and become responsible either for the general guidance of a number of students, or for their tutorial care in special subjects; and for teachers acting in the latter capacity, the students should write essays from time to time, so as to be trained in methods of individual work. We regard such tutorial guidance as of the greatest importance.¹ But the hall as well as the class-room would be a centre of intellectual life in other ways also. In every hall there should be a library providing both books for pure recreation and others, supplementing the university library, and touching intellectual interests outside the formal curriculum. Again there should be societies not only for athletics and games but for the discussion of topics of learned and every-day interest. The teachers will get to know their students not only in the class-rooms but through their individual work, and through the games and societies in which they will take part. In a residential system the students and teachers form part of one community, working to one purpose, and helping each other to a common end.

¹ Chapter. XXXIV, paras. 53-59.

45. We should be sorry indeed to see those students who live with their parents and guardians excluded from the privileges of this common work and activity. We recommend that every non-resident student should be attached to a hall or hostel and enjoy as far as possible all the rights of the resident students in respect of tutorial assistance, library, games and societies.

46. Cardinal Newman has eulogised the residential system in a well known passage.¹

"I protest to you, Gentlemen," he said, "that if I had to choose between a so-called university, which dispensed with residence and tutorial superintendence, and gave its degrees to any person who passed an examination in a wide range of subjects, and a university which had no professors or examinations at all, but merely brought a number of young men together for three or four years, and then sent them away as the University of Oxford is said to have done some sixty years since, if I were asked which of these two methods was the better discipline of the intellect . . . which of the two courses was the more successful in training, moulding, enlarging the mind, which sent out men the more fitted for their secular duties, which produced better public men, men of the world, men whose names would descend to posterity, I have no hesitation in giving the preference to that University which did nothing, over that which exacted of its members an acquaintance with every science under the sun."

We do not go so far. Newman is thinking of the élite, rather than of the average who form the majority of students; and his conclusion seems to postulate the existence of an intellectual tradition which has been largely created in the older British universities by the systematic training to which he assigns so subordinate a position. On such training we lay no less stress than on the residential side.

47. We are convinced that formal lectures and teaching must have a place, and an important place, in university education. The lecture can, though it does not often do so in Bengal, give a perspective and a sense of the relative value and importance of the different sections of a subject which come only from long study, and which cannot be derived by a young student from the pages of a printed book. It is uneconomical to give this general kind of survey to only a few students at a time, and, again, there is, for the lecturer himself, a stimulus created by a large audience of a different kind from the stimulus derived from discussion with

¹ Newman's *Idea of a University*.

a small group of students in the study.¹ We regard both elements as desirable for the ideal University. The residential and tutorial element glowingly eulogised by Newman, and the lectures on a large scale which have exerted so profound an influence on students in universities like the University of Paris, the Scottish universities and the modern universities of England and Wales, ought both to find their place in Dacca.

48. The Governments of India and of Bengal, and the Dacca University Committee desired to see established at Dacca a university of the 'teaching and residential type' open to all, but with special facilities for the encouragement of Muslim students and of Muslim studies. While our ideals of the training to be given to students by the University of Dacca coincide, as far as we can ascertain, with those of the Dacca University Committee, we find ourselves somewhat widely in disagreement with the Committee in respect of the university constitution required to carry those ideals into practice.

49. There is in India some looseness in the use of the word 'governing body', which, we think, leads to practical misapprehension. The 'governing body' of a Government college does not in any real sense govern the college; it can neither appoint nor dismiss the staff, nor has it much control over the budget; its functions are less important than those of many 'managing committees;' and though the Dacca University Committee proposed two 'governing bodies' (the Convocation and the Council) for the detailed administration of the University of Dacca, a large and important part of that detailed administration was to be exercised directly by Government, as will be seen from the following excerpts from the report of the Committee² :—

Relations of the University with the Government and the Director of Public Instruction.

"We consider that the control of the Government over the University should be exercised directly, and that in order that the Government may be kept informed as to its progress and management, the Director of Public Instruction should be appointed Official Visitor, with full powers to inspect all colleges and departments. The University should correspond with the Government on all questions excepting those relating to staff in which case

¹ Dacca Report, page 36.

² *Ibid.*, pages 142-144.

correspondence should, for the sake of convenience and despatch, be conducted through the Director.

We recommend that the Government should confer on the Vice-Chancellor the powers with regard to leave which are delegated to the Director of Public Instruction by the Bengal rules and orders. These powers include the grant of privilege leave to all officers, and the grant of leave of all kinds to officers in Classes VII and VIII of the Provincial Educational Service, to officers of the Subordinate Educational Service, and to ungraded officers whose pay does not exceed Rs. 250 a month. We also recommend that all other powers with regard to staff which have been delegated to the Director of Public Instruction, including the authority to appoint officers of the classes enumerated above, should be exercised in the University by the Council. This general recommendation cannot extend to cases, such as promotions in the Subordinate Educational Service, which must necessarily be dealt with by the head of the department. The Council should have the same authority as is vested in the Director of Public Instruction, subject to budget provision, to make minor additions to the staff: this includes the appointment of teachers, clerks and menials, outside the grades of the educational services, on pay not exceeding Rs. 45 a month, subject to the submission of quarterly statements. The Council should be consulted before an officer serving under the University is transferred elsewhere; similarly if the Council wishes to obtain the services of an officer from outside the university, or the removal of a member of the university staff, it should make an application to the Director of Public Instruction, who will, if necessary, refer the case to the Government.

In order that the Government may be kept informed of the conduct and merit of officers serving under the University, the present system of annual reports should be maintained. These reports should be submitted by principals of colleges through the Vice-Chancellor, or, in the case of officers serving immediately under the University, by the Vice-Chancellor direct, to the Director of Public Instruction.

Colleges should not correspond directly with the Government or the Director of Public Instruction; any college requiring additions to staff, buildings, etc., or desiring to raise any question which will require Government orders, should submit the case to the Council.

Financial arrangements.

...The scheme is based on two main principles: the first that all receipts should be credited to the Government and that the Government should bear all charges; the second that, as far as possible, accounts work should be centralised.

The University will be maintained by the Government, the members of its staff will be Government officers, and its fees and other receipts will meet only a portion of its annual cost. In these circumstances the simplest and most convenient course will be, that all receipts from fees, fines and miscellaneous sources should be credited to the Government, that salaries and establishment charges should be paid direct from the treasury, and that the Government should make an annual grant to cover all other expenditure. The annual grant should be paid into a university fund so that the unspent balance will not lapse at the end of the year. Subject to the general control of the Government, the University should have full authority to deal with this

fund and to apportion it among the various colleges and departments. Before the commencement of each year, and as soon as the amount of the Government grant is known, the Finance Committee will prepare a budget estimate of expenditure and submit it to the Council. After approval, the estimates will serve as authority to colleges and departments to incur expenditure under the ordinary heads of contingency ; but all items of a special or unusual nature, or which exceed a certain fixed amount, should be submitted to the Council for previous sanction. This system represents a very wide extension of that which obtains in the Presidency College, an extension which is justifiable in view of the magnitude and importance of the new institution and of the character of its administration. The Government may eventually be willing to grant a larger measure of financial autonomy to the new University, but at first the measure of decentralisation which we suggest would appear to be sufficient, while it will be of great advantage to the University to work under a simple financial system during the early years of its organisation."

50. The University was thus not to be responsible either for its own staff, or for its own finance, nor was it to be responsible for its own regulations. Exactly as at Calcutta at present, the most minute change in regulations, after passing through the cog-wheels of an elaborate machinery, was to be submitted to Government for confirmation. The whole of the complex machinery devised for working the University was in the main an advisory machinery. We have shown in another place¹ the grave disadvantages of the existing dissociation between detailed knowledge of academic matters and responsibility for their administration, and have suggested that while the State cannot and ought not to rid itself of the ultimate responsibility for the larger questions of university policy which affect the country as a whole, the attempt of the State to manage a university in detail leads to confusion ; it weakens the sense of responsibility of the University in advising Government as to the changes in their regulations, since Government is not bound to take their advice ; and the responsibility of Government in dealing with university administration becomes somewhat unreal, since it is an obvious impossibility for the Government department concerned to be acquainted with the details of university management in regard to which they are legally obliged to make decisions.¹

51. We are well aware of the difficulties of the situation which the system of the Dacca University Committee was intended to meet ; and we think those difficulties should be stated with the utmost frankness, in respect of the three questions of staff, finance and regulations.

¹ Chapter XXVIII, paras. 74 to 91.

52. *Staff*.—The Indian service system (leaving aside the difficult question of whether it is ultimately an economical system or not) has advantages which cannot be denied and ought not to be understated. It attracts many men (1) because of the prestige of Government service, (2) because of the security of Government service, (3) because of its system of pension and leave.

Its disadvantages from the university point of view may be summed up as follows:—

- (1) The University cannot choose its own staff to suit the special conditions of its teaching; even supposing the Government to accept its advice, its choice will be far more limited in many cases than if it could go outside the cadres; and it may have forced on it a man who deserves promotion and for whom promotion can only be found in a university post for which he is not the person most fitted.
- (2) In just the same way as Government from a sense of equity to the members of one of its services may feel itself obliged to promote a person in the service to a post in the University for which he is not particularly suited, so it may feel itself constrained to take away from the University a person who is doing excellent work therein and give him promotion in some outside administrative post; the University cannot resist the appointment in the first case; nor can it resist the transfer in the second, or offer the teacher additional salary to retain his services, for the Government acts above the head of the University.
- (3) Hence members of the services must feel in the majority of cases that their future lies not in university advancement, but in service advancement; some will no doubt be sufficiently devoted to the work of their chairs to decline the proffered advancement; but in other cases, and especially in the case of men with families to support, this abnegation cannot be expected. It may be said, and fairly said, that a certain number of men develop towards maturity a taste for administrative work in which they have gained some experience as teachers; but in the first place these cases are excep-

tional, and secondly there should be administrative posts inside as well as outside the University to satisfy the ambitions of teachers of this type. What is unsatisfactory is the perpetual temptation to a teacher to take an administrative post as a means of promotion from a teaching post. Such a temptation is bound to exert a disorganising effect on any teaching staff.

- (4) The attractions of the service system are not so great as they may appear at first sight; a service system fails to attract precisely that class of man who in the great majority of cases is appointed to a university chair in the West, namely the man of more mature age who has already made his reputation as a teacher and a scholar or a man of science. Apart from the difficulty of inducing a man of such age to go to a distant country, it fails to attract him because appointment and promotion in the service are and must ordinarily be from the bottom; and because the pension conditions are far less advantageous to a man between thirty and forty or over forty than they are to a man between twenty and thirty. The Dacca University Committee felt these difficulties and to meet them proposed to create four 'special chairs' for men of about 40 with a distinguished reputation, to whom salaries of from Rs. 1,800 to Rs. 2,000 a month would be offered. The creation of such chairs outside the ordinary cadre implies the break-down of the service system on the one hand; and on the other brings into a clear light the disadvantage from which Dacca would suffer in not being able to go into the open market and get the best man available for any chairs but these four.

53. We feel that any university tied to a service system on the existing Indian pattern would be seriously handicapped; and that the University of Dacca would suffer gravely if it is adopted.

54. We may quote at this point the evidence of a member of the Indian Educational Service, Mr. G. H. Langley, Professor of Philosophy in the Dacca College:—

"The existing defect of internal organisation," he writes, "is largely the result of the fact that professors of colleges are members of the Government services, and are not appointed to special positions in particular colleges. The

consequence of this is that it is not always possible to get the best available man for any post that may be vacant ; and, further, the relation between lecturers in any college is the conventional relation between certain wide Government services, and not the natural relation necessary for the most efficient organisation of the studies. I am, therefore, convinced that provided satisfactory safeguards can be given for the security of positions (such safeguards being necessary to secure the best type of professor) it will be better to disassociate professors from their immediate service to Government and to make them servants of the University, appointed to definite posts. Apart from this it is doubtful whether that freedom and autonomy of the body of teachers, which is so essential to the life of the University, can be attained."

55. We now come to the question of safeguards ; we think that they should be as great for specific university posts as those now existing in Government service. We have sketched elsewhere the conditions of tenure which we regard as suitable.¹ We think that, as in Government service, there will be posts for which a period of probation will be necessary, but that after the lapse of that period the appointment should be renewed (except for short period appointments dealt with in paragraph 56 below) until the age of retirement, under a legal contract which the University could not break, subject of course to its annulment owing to gross personal misconduct or mental or physical incapacity, of which cases an independent tribunal should be judge. No member of the staff under these conditions could either be summarily dismissed by the University or have resignation forced on him unjustly. Legal contracts between a teacher and the body employing him, though common in Great Britain, are so rare in India that in unexpected quarters we have found ignorance of their value. We think that the contract on its financial side might be guaranteed by Government. In asking for such a guarantee we are only asking for what is given by Government under the service system proposed by the Dacca Committee ; and under the general system which we shall recommend they would be amply covered by their general control of university funds. We are inclined to think that no person could regard the security of a university post held under such conditions as less than the security of a post held under the service system.

56. We have referred incidentally to ' short period appointments.' We think that it might well be to the advantage of the University in certain cases to offer appointments say of ten years, with a considerable bonus payable at the expiry of that period, to secure the

¹ Chapter XXXIV, paras. 112-120.

service of persons who would be unwilling to accept life appointments. It would be for the University to decide in what cases such appointments would be desirable from the university point of view, attractive from that of the candidate. But we can conceive the case of a man willing to come to Dacca for a term of years, but unwilling to take up his domicile there for the whole of his working life. Such appointments would of course be as strictly guarded from the legal point of view as life appointments.

57. We have proposed elsewhere to substitute for the pension system a superannuation system, extensible, if possible, to all Indian universities, which would enable any university teacher to accept transference from any one Indian university to another without loss of superannuation benefits. Such a system, if the contribution from the University is made sufficient, can be made as attractive as, or even more attractive than, a pension system ; because the participant can withdraw from it by resignation at an age less than the age of retirement without losing his benefit.

58. From the point of view both of teachers and of the University, we think, therefore, that the system of appointment to specific posts which we propose is more advantageous than the service system. But we are aware that the abandonment of that system may raise some misgivings in the minds of the Muslim community. The community feel that if Dacca is to exercise the attraction for Muslim students which it is intended to exercise the Muslim and European teachers must not be altogether outnumbered, as they are both in Calcutta and in the existing Dacca colleges, by the Hindu teachers ; and some influential Musalmans, at any rate, are inclined to think that it is only by the direct intervention of Government that such a proportion can be secured. We have dealt with the general question raised here in Chapter VI.¹

In designing the constitution of the University of Dacca, we have had Muslim needs constantly in our mind, though not, we believe, to the neglect in any way of the interests of the general community as a whole ; and we believe that committees of selection such as are described in Chapter XXXIV,² could be trusted as a rule to bear in mind the necessity of appointing an adequate number of Musalmans to the teaching staff ; we propose for the constitu-

¹ Para. 17.

² Paras. 112-120.

tion of these committees a constitution similar to that proposed for the University of Calcutta; but should the general opinion demand it we should be willing that the final appointment should be left to the Chancellor of the University, so as to leave open the possibility of representations if either the Muslim or Hindu community were likely to suffer owing to a disproportionately small number of appointments of members of that community.

59. Further, we are clearly of opinion that it is essential if the new University is to be started on right lines that it should have the assistance of a number of capable teachers recruited in Europe. It is quite true that a committee of selection constituted in the way described will not be debarred from choosing its candidates from Europe or America. But this process would always take time; and we think that it should be laid down that a certain number of posts should be filled by the Secretary of State acting on the advice of a specialist committee in England to whom the University would furnish the necessary particulars. We recommend that the procedure adopted should be similar to that which we shall recommend for corresponding appointments in the Presidency College.¹

60. *Finance.*—We come next to the question of finance. Under the original scheme of the Committee, of which the main features are set out above, all receipts were to be credited to Government; and Government was to pay salaries and establishment charges direct from the treasury and to make an annual grant to cover all other expenditure. The Dacca University Committee incidentally recommended that the University should have authority to accept endowments and to make arrangements for the administration of trusts; but made no provision for the separate treatment of income from such sources. The University was to be run on the lines of a Government department, with, however, one special and important proviso that the unspent balance from any year was to be carried on to the following year, a condition which cannot easily be adjusted with the present system of finance by annual budgets.

61. In a later scheme the contingency of gifts to the University was provided for, and it was suggested that there should be two budgets, (1) a Vice-Chancellor's budget including all Government

¹ Chapter XXXIV, para. 169; see also para. 88 below.

grants and (2) a budget of the university fund (or Council's Budget) which included certain sums transferred from the Vice-Chancellor's budget, together with all the income accruing to the university from non-Government sources. Over the income accruing to the university from non-Government sources the Council were to exercise control subject to general Government supervision. The Vice-Chancellor's budget was to be subject to the approval of the local Government.

62. To the system of finance proposed by the Dacca University Committee we feel grave objections. The Committee were, we think, justified in not anticipating any special provision for benefactions to the university under the system proposed, for the history of university education in Bengal shows that it would be unlikely to receive any, except possibly for scholarships and prizes. It is true that, as we have pointed out in Chapter III, benefactions of greater or smaller extent have been received by the Government colleges at Rajshahi, Chittagong and Krishnagar. But we understand that in these cases the gifts were made either for the foundation of the college, or to induce the Government to raise it from a second-grade to a first-grade college, or to induce Government not to disestablish it. On the other hand, although the Hindu College, from which the Presidency College sprang, was created by means of liberal gifts from private donors, the Presidency College itself since its existence as a Government institution in 1855 has not, so far as we are aware, received any benefactions except for prizes or scholarships. Dacca College, established in 1841, is in a similar position, and Sibpur Engineering College also. On the other hand Calcutta University, since its teaching functions have become a reality, has received really handsome endowments for teaching amounting to 25 lakhs in all. We think it probable from past history in Bengal that if the organisation is such that the local Government has to approve and take the responsibility for the annual budget in the way proposed, it will be naturally regarded as the sole source of university funds and the 'governing bodies' of the University will neither feel it their business to appeal to the community at large, nor would there be much likelihood of their doing so with success.

63. Apart from the question of benefactions we do not think the system proposed would conduce to the most efficient and economical

working of a large and complex institution like a university ; it implies the separate consideration by Government of every item of new expenditure ; and each department of study making claims for its development will naturally tend to press those claims to the utmost, irrespective of the claims of other departments. The local Government will scarcely be in a position to adjust those claims ; yet, if it says to the university central authority ' these claims are for you to adjust, we can afford only so much,' the system, *de facto*, though with infinite complexities of detail, is reduced in principle to the block-grant system ; and we suggest that the block-grant system should be adopted from the outset. Under this system the Government would make a block-grant to the University for a number of years, three or five, after which it would be reconsidered ; and unless some special need were to arise, it would be the business of the University to live within its means within the period prescribed. It is to be pointed out that the block-grant system is an elastic system under which Government can tighten or relax its control as may seem necessary by ear-marking or releasing from ear-mark such portion of its grants as it sees fit. But both the University and the Government are freed from the necessity of reconsidering each detail annually ; and the inducement to the University to employ its resources with due economy, to meet the healthily increasing claims on it, will be far greater than if it is able every year to press each detail of those claims on Government. We think that, without the application of any rigid formula, increased support from Government might be made (following English precedents) to depend to some extent on local support.

64. There must of course be ample financial safeguards. Copies of the annual estimates of income and expenditure should be furnished to Government for their information, and the accounts should be audited by Government as a guarantee that the money has been spent for the purposes for which it has been granted. We think there is much to be said for the system of ' continuous audit.' Further, we propose a periodical inspection of the university under the direction of the Visitor.¹ Under such a system we do not think irregularities of finance or administration could occur ; or if they did, they would promptly be brought to light.

¹ Chapter L, para. 45.

65. The word 'autonomy' has been used by some important witnesses whom we shall quote below. We believe that others take alarm at the notion of autonomy.¹ By autonomy, where we ourselves use the word, we certainly mean neither irresponsibility nor freedom from all constitutional restraints. But without a certain degree of freedom there cannot be any responsibility; and without such a degree of freedom we do not think the University of Dacca can ever become a living and healthy organisation.

Mr. F. C. Turner, formerly a professor in, and now Principal of, Dacca College, writes:—

"I consider that the University should be entirely autonomous, save only in the matter of the pay of such officers of the University and colleges as are Government servants. The Director of Public Instruction should have a seat on the convocation and council of the University, but neither he nor Government should exercise direct control over the policy of the University. The University and each college which is financed by Government should receive a consolidated grant, together with tuition, examination, and other fees (which should be exempted from the rule under which such money is paid into the general revenues), subject to audit by the Accountant General, but should be at liberty, within that grant, to appropriate funds to any educational object under their control. Schemes for the expansion of the University or colleges involving additional expenditure should be submitted to Government through the Director of Public Instruction."

"I think," writes Dr. Nares Chandra Sen Gupta, Vice-Principal of the Law Department at Dacca College—

"that the fundamental idea underlying the Dacca University Committee's report on the constitution of the University is faulty. I do not think it is possible to run a university as a mere department of a centralised Government. It would, no doubt, form a component unit of the Government organisation in so far as it discharges an important public function, but I take it to be of the essence of university life that it should have complete autonomy."

Mr. T. T. Williams, Professor of Political Economy at Dacca College, says:—

"Considering the constitution of the University, I believe that it should be an autonomous university. As far as possible it should have complete authority as regards finance, the Government paying a fixed annual sum (a consolidated grant) and the remaining revenue needed being obtained from fees and other ordinary university receipts. I suggest also that the open land in Amlapara should be built upon and the proceeds of leases given to the University. The university should be the final authority for all expenditure, within the terms of its charter. Carefully prepared budgets and accounts

¹ See evidence of Nawab Syed Nawabaly Chaudhury, General Memoranda, page 206 and Question 4. The scheme which we propose contains, we believe, provision for the complete safe-guarding of communal rights by public authority.

ought to be published in readily available form. This financial control and responsibility will induce real economy in education and, I believe, it will induce private donors to assist in founding chairs, scholarships, etc., and in the erection of buildings."

The Rev. T. E. Teignmouth Shore of the Oxford Mission in Dacca, speaking of the original Dacca scheme, writes:—

"The whole scheme seemed to me to be far too rigid and complete in detail. What is needed is something which will be, in its initial stages, extremely plastic. The University should be called into existence with a minimum of machinery and left as free a hand as possible in the moulding of its own corporate life. In this it is essential that it should be freed from Government control as far as possible. Visitatorial powers vested in Government would be sufficient to prevent any serious misuse of its authority by the University and this is all that is really needed. Members of the Government educational services working in the University and its constituent colleges should, for the time being, be responsible to the university authority alone."

66. *Statutes, Regulations and Ordinances.*—We now come to the question of regulations. We have elsewhere discussed more fully the view that it is inadvisable for the University to be obliged to submit every detail of its regulations for Government approval.¹ On the other hand it is clear that certain wide changes in them may affect matters of public importance, including the relations of the University with other universities and especially the University of Calcutta. As in the case of the University of Calcutta, we propose to draw a distinction between the various kinds of rules necessary for the governance of a university, in the order of their importance, and to classify them as Statutes, Ordinances and Regulations.

- (a) *Statutes* should be rules dealing with the more fundamental matters, and in accordance with the precedent adopted in modern English universities, should be only subject to change with the consent of public authority. In the case of most of the modern English universities that authority is the Privy Council; for the universities in Bengal we propose the local Government.

The first statutes should form a schedule to the University of Dacca Act. But the Act itself should include a clause permitting the statutes to be added to or amended by

¹ Chapter XXVIII; see also Chapter XXXVII, Section II. The Dacca University Committee recommended that the 'regulations' under their scheme should not enter into details of curricula, etc., which could properly be settled by an order of the Council (Report, page 144).

the Court of the University, consistently with the provisions of the Act, and subject in each case to the approval of the Governor of Bengal in Council.

- (b) *Ordinances*.—The ordinary routine of the University, academic and administrative, should be prescribed by *ordinances* in regard to main outlines, by *regulations* in regard to details. The ordinances should be made by the Executive Council, whose powers, however, should be limited by certain checks.

In the first place, ordinances dealing with purely academic matters, such as degree courses, examinations, and the discipline of students, should require the assent of the Academic Council and in general be initiated by that body.

Secondly, every proposed ordinance should be subject to the veto of the Chancellor.¹ This provision would enable any communal grievance, raised or supposed to be raised, by a proposed ordinance, to be brought to the notice of the Chancellor before it came into effect.

Thirdly, all ordinances made during the academic year should be submitted to the Court at a *statutory meeting*, and the Court should have power by a majority of not less than two-thirds of those present and voting to cancel any such ordinance, but not to amend it. Action taken by the University under any ordinance in the course of the session and affecting the future of individual students should not be invalidated by such cancellation. Powers should be reserved to the Vice-Chancellor to deal with such cases, and with any other cases of difficulty arising out of the invalidation by the Court of any ordinance. We anticipate that such cases would be extremely rare.

- (c) *Regulations*.—An ordinance should in many cases confer upon the various university bodies concerned the power to settle details of the matters within the sphere of the

¹ Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad thinks that ordinances, other than those relating to purely academical matters, particularly those dealing with communal representation, should be made subject to the approval of the Chancellor, instead of subject to his veto.

ordinance by means of *regulations* bearing upon such details.¹

Thus an ordinance might in matters relating to courses give the Academic Council the right to prescribe regulations relating to attendance, and to the relevant faculty or Board of Studies regulations relating to particular set-books; or it might confer the right to prescribe the whole of such regulations either on the Academic Council or on the relevant Faculty. We purposely refrain from laying down in any hard and fast way which matters should be prescribed by ordinance and which by regulation.

The scheme which we propose is an elastic one enabling delegation to be from time to time either widened or restricted as may seem desirable to the relevant authorities in regard to any particular matter. While neither the Government nor the Court would be able to interfere unduly or in detail with the every-day working of the University the ultimate control in regard to statutes would lie with the Government, in regard to ordinances, with the Court. The 'autonomy' of the University and of the academic bodies within the University would therefore be limited in this way, as well as, in the case of ordinances, by the veto of the Chancellor.

67. Before giving a sketch of the University of Dacca, as we conceive it, there are two more questions involving general policy which we must discuss; its freedom from racial or religious tests, and the size of the University.

68. *The University to be open to all.*—We think it desirable that the intention of Government that the University should be open to all ought to be made explicit in its constitution. The Benares Hindu University Act, 1915, Section 4 (1) provides that—

“the University shall, subject to the regulations, be open to persons of all classes, castes and creeds, but provision shall be made for religious instruction and examination in Hindu religion only.”

And we understand that a recent draft of the Muslim University Bill contains the following section:—

“The University shall be open to all, and no religious test shall be imposed upon any person in order to entitle him to be admitted as a professor, lecturer,

¹ The Dacca University Committee (Report, page 194), recommended that the Council should make such changes in courses and methods of instruction as were not fixed by regulations.

teacher or student of the University except for professors and lecturers of theology. The study and examination in theology shall be compulsory to Muslim students only."

We think that some such provision as the following should be made in the Dacca University Act :—

It shall not be lawful for the University or for any of its authorities as hereinafter provided to adopt or impose on any persons any test whatever of race, or of religious belief or profession in order to entitle him to be admitted as a professor, teacher, or student of the University or to hold any office therein or to graduate thereat, or to enjoy or exercise any privilege thereof, except where such test is specifically provided under this Act or the statutes of the University made thereunder, or as may be defined in Trust Deeds laying down the conditions for benefactions accepted by the University. Provided that nothing in this Act shall prevent religious instruction being given to those willing to receive it in the University and its halls and other institutions forming part of the University or connected therewith by persons (whether teachers of the University or not) chosen by the competent authority named in any ordinance on this subject.

We are of opinion that the only benefactions in which there should be limitations of any kind to particular communities are benefactions for scholarships or bursaries, etc., or the provision of religious teaching, and that the University should discourage benefactions with racial or religious limitations of any other character.

69. *Size of the University.*—The size of a university is an essential factor in its organisation. We have seen that the University of Calcutta has at present overgrown its organisation and become unwieldy and that this is one of the main reasons of its existing defects. It may seem premature before the University of Dacca is founded to foresee for it a similar fate; but university education has grown so rapidly in Bengal that it is well to take precautions. We hope that the ambitions of Dacca will not be to be made 'bigger than the biggest.'

The University will probably have to provide soon after its foundation for from 1,500 to 2,000 students, all above the intermediate grade; if this anticipation in respect of the number of its students is realised it will be larger than the University of Manchester or the University of Leeds.¹ This is not the place to

¹ The Dacca University Committee contemplated about 2,900 students; by allowing for the removal of the intermediate classes, and by adding an extra year for the B. A. course, the number will probably be reduced to 1,500. We arrive at the same number of 1,500 if starting from the basis of the present number of the students in the Dacca colleges we assume that the bulk of the students from the Dacca district and about one-third of the students from the neighbouring districts of Mymensingh, Faridpore, Bakarganj and Comilla will join the Dacca University.

suggest an ultimate limit for the number of undergraduate students; but we think it would be wise for the University and the governing bodies of the University to fix such a limit if the number shows any signs of increasing unduly. Such an increase, without reorganisation of the University on a different scale, would mean a diminution of the attention which the teachers could pay both to their students and to their studies; for an undue proportion of the time and energies of the best teachers would be devoted to attending meetings and to the multiple details of a large administration; the best ideals of the institution and of the students would be sacrificed; and Dacca would tend to become a machine instead of a university. But we wish to make two points quite clear; first that we do not suggest any limitation of post-graduate or research work at Dacca, or any measure that would prevent its taking the highest rank among universities in India or elsewhere, if it can find the teachers and the students of the right quality; secondly, that we do not propose the imposition of any limitation on the opportunities for general university training in Bengal. If the contingency which we contemplate arises at Dacca it can be met in various ways; for instance, the University might be re-organised, with a far more complex official machinery, designed to relieve the teachers from administrative functions that would otherwise fall to them; or—and this, we think, both in the interests of Dacca and of Bengal, generally, the better solution—a second university would have to be created in the mufassal, say at Rajshahi or Rangpur, on the general lines of Dacca, but modified in the light of the Dacca experience and to meet the demands of local conditions.¹

70. *Sketch of the University.*—We think that before entering into details of the teaching and residential organisation and of the constitution which we propose for the University it will be useful to give a brief sketch of the University as we conceive it.

71. The residential side of the University will be provided for by larger units which we call 'halls' and smaller units, which we call hostels; the teaching side will be provided for by university departments, of which the majority of the teachers will be appointed by the University. The whole organisation will be

¹Chapter XXXV, para. 20 and *passim*.

self-contained and simple, and, except for the management of the private hostels,¹ unified.

72. We propose that the management of the teaching, and certainly of all details both of university teaching and curricula, should be entrusted to the teachers, who will have as their most important organ a body called the Academic Council. In addition to the Academic Council, there will be from the first Faculties of Arts, Science, and Law; other Faculties, Medicine and Agriculture, and possibly Civil Engineering will, we hope, be added later. The Faculties will appoint for the consideration of special subjects, and of groups of subjects taken by students intending to follow a particular course, committees called Boards of Studies. The teachers of a particular subject will form a Department of Studies, presided over by a responsible head.

73. As the supreme body for fundamental legislation there will be a large assembly, called the Court, which will serve to bring the University into relation with the general community. We hope that many of those members of the Court who do not belong to the academic body, as well as the teachers, will assist the University by serving on the committees which it will be necessary to create from time to time either for the purpose of raising funds or to give advice in regard to technical matters and new departures. To deal with executive and financial matters there will be a small but strong body, on which the teachers will have ample representation, called the Executive Council.

74. We do not forget that the creation of the University was largely due to the demand of the Muslim community of Eastern Bengal for greater facilities for higher education; and we have assigned to the representatives of that community an important place on all the administrative bodies. We hope that on the teaching side able members of the community, not only from Bengal but from other provinces in India, will come forward to fill a suitable proportion of the new teaching posts. The Muslim share in the University cannot be created by regulation alone; it will depend largely on the effective contribution which the community is willing and able to make to the teaching efficiency and strength of the University as well as to its student population. The

¹ See paras. 160-166.

University will need the fullest co-operation of both the Hindu and the Muslim communities to ensure its success.

75. The freedom from the burden of intermediate teaching will, in our judgment, immensely ease the initiation and progress of the University. We propose, for reasons given by the Dacca University Committee with which we fully sympathise, that the courses for pass and honours students shall be differentiated on lines not hitherto adopted in Bengal. The honours course should make a greater demand on the individual student and involve not more, but less, systematic teaching than the pass course. We propose that in Dacca, as in Calcutta, the honours course should be at once increased from two to three years; and we recommend that the two universities acting in concert should at the earliest possible date increase the pass course for the bachelor's degree also to three years at a later date. A university student should, as a rule, remain at the University for not less than three years before proceeding to a degree.

76. We think that the minimum length of the M.A. and M.Sc. courses should ordinarily be two years, but that with the permission of the Faculty concerned and of the Academic Council this course might be reduced to one calendar year, after special application, in the case of honours students. We do not think such a reduction would be justified, even in special cases, for pass students. Students who have taken the B.A. honours course should be permitted to present as a substitute for part of the written examination a piece of individual work on the part of the candidate which might take the form either of original investigation, or of an ordered and critical exposition of existing data with regard to a particular subject approved beforehand by the University. The regulations for the M.Sc. should be on the same lines as those for the M.A., but in most cases even a student who has taken his honours B. Sc. brilliantly will not be in a position to carry out a piece of individual investigation for the M.Sc. in one year; he will need to continue his technical training; and we think that the reduction of the period of study to one year should probably be made in fewer instances for the M.Sc. than for the M.A.

77. In the Arts Faculty a marked feature would be the department of Islamic studies, side by side with which we hope to see later a co-ordinate department of Sanskritic studies. There is ample room in the University for the two. The department of

English must necessarily be a strong one. As indicated elsewhere we think that it should provide teaching in the use of the English language for all students; meaning by this a training in the power of understanding and expression which should aim at enabling each one to master any book in English of which he has need, and to express himself in English clearly, systematically and effectively. We think that English teaching with this end in view should be provided for all students—science students as well as arts students—who need it, independently of the question whether English forms part of their examination curriculum or not. We hope that there will be a strong honours school in English literature. But for all pass students we think the literary side of English should be restricted to the modern period.¹

78. The Dacca University Committee suggested that the only vernacular languages for which provision need at first be made are Bengali and Urdu. To these we would add Assamese. As university subjects, the vernaculars should be studied scientifically, from the philological and linguistic, as well as from the literary, point of view, but we do not think that this study should be compulsory for all students. The question of training in the use of the vernacular is discussed in Chapters XVI, XLI and XLII.

We hope that both Bengali and Urdu will be studied scientifically as well as colloquially and in connexion with the classical languages with which they are related. The classical Oriental languages, Sanskrit, Pali, Arabic and Persian, will find an important place in the Arts curriculum; and we think that for Muslim students Urdu should be treated in the curriculum as an alternative to one of the languages generally included in the classical group, when Urdu is not their vernacular. We have discussed this question at length elsewhere.²

79. We agree fully with the suggestions of our predecessors that provision should be made for the teaching of French and German so as to enable students to read books in those languages relating to their studies.

80. We hope that in the department of history, which ought mainly to deal with Indian history, Islamic history and general

¹ We deal with this matter more fully in Chapters XVIII, XXXIV, paras 44–47, and XLI.

² See especially Chapters VI, para. 27, XXXI, para. 70, and XXXII, para. 27.

Modern European history, there will not be an excessive attempt to cover the whole field until it is possible adequately to increase the staff for this purpose. In economics we hope that in addition to the general work some attempt will be made to deal with the local problems of economics and of sociology, for which material lies at hand; and possibly some social work among the poorer classes may be undertaken not only by the students in the department of economics but also by those in other departments. The Baptist Hostel has already started work of this kind. The department of philosophy will be strengthened by the co-existence of the departments of Islamic and Sanskrit studies.

81. Among the subjects which belong to the Faculties of both Arts and Science, mathematics will no doubt attract the largest number of students and should have a strong department. We should like to see a department and a readership, if not a professorship, of geography established at an early date. It is a subject indispensable for the teaching of history and of economics, and an essential element in the training of teachers. For reasons which we have given below we have suggested that the department of teaching should be expanded into a department of education. In such a department geography should play a considerable part.

82. We are entirely in accord with the view that to place Dacca on a proper basis the Faculty of Science should be strengthened by the addition of biological sciences, botany, zoology and physiology, which have received too little encouragement hitherto in Bengal. They are essential in a properly equipped university; and if and when a medical faculty is established they will be indispensable for the professional studies. We hope that a department of geology will be established at a later date. The departments of physics and chemistry are cramped in their accommodation. A new physics laboratory is essential to allow of proper expansion for both subjects.

83. There is a large and flourishing school of law at Dacca. We recommend that it should be made into a faculty. We also recommend that as soon as practicable there should be constituted a faculty of medicine, and later, a faculty of agriculture, and possibly one of civil engineering.

84. The Dacca University Committee suggested that the students of the proposed College for 'well-to-do' classes should not necessarily

of labour, that, wherever they go, they may preach those ideals which will of themselves bring in a new era in education. Our present reformation should be undertaken to produce men who will themselves build up the University of the future. If we produce real men instead of the unlettered mob we at present produce, we can safely leave them to produce an indigenous type of university which will really meet the need of India. What we have to do now is to produce these few men, apostles of a new educational revival in India, men capable of thinking out the problems of the educational future of India, of making decisions unswayed by the political considerations of the moment and capable of breaking through the economic and social shackles by which their activity and development have hitherto been hopelessly retarded."¹

Nevertheless Mr. Garfield Williams is of opinion that beginnings must be made with the foundations for future development :—

"At present our chief work should be to encourage technological research in our universities. Five Indians—enthusiastic *chelas* of a technological expert, working in his laboratory on terms of intimacy with him—will do more good than five thousand B.A. LL.B.'s for the future of Calcutta University and for the future of India. For this reason we should aim at providing the very best and be prepared to spend as much money on such a department (although it will be utilised by very few students) as on any other department. Moreover, university professors of technological sciences should be the best we can get and should be told that a great part of their work for some years to come will be research work, gathering together a few disciples and with their aid attempting to change the present attitude of the people of India to technological pursuits."²

52. Mr. H. Sharp² expresses the view that it is advisable that research should form part of university activity in technological subjects ; but he thinks that "the prime duty of the professor in India at present is teaching." He reminds us of the danger of the dissipation of research activities and of the existence of the Tata Institute for research in applied science at Bangalore, which he thinks is best separated from a university "especially at the present stage of university development in India." He adds :—

"I would also sound a note of warning about the word 'research' as applied to other subjects, as well as technology. It has recently become a shibboleth in India as regards both qualifications and duties. . . . The pursuit of research, unaccompanied by other qualifications, does not necessarily stamp a man as a suitable teacher in university work. The man who poses as no more than a teacher is often in reality an unadvertised researcher of the highest order."

53. The view that the University should not attempt technological training is by no means confined to European witnesses.

¹ Question 6.

² Question 7.

Sir Ramkrishna Bhandarkar¹ holds that the University should not provide or recognise courses in applied science and technology as qualifying either for degrees or for diplomas. He thinks that higher technological training should be entirely segregated from other branches of higher education and that the University should confine itself to pure science. Mr. Brajalal Chakravarti's view¹ is that the value of the applied sciences consists in their success in the market and that this is a matter outside the province of the University. He adds that a degree in those subjects conferred by the University will not of itself be of much value and that technological training is better left to persons who are actually engaged in the practical work of industries, the university's function in this matter being the teaching of pure science. The view of Mr. Kishori Mohan Chaudhuri¹ is that a university should not concern itself with technological training, but that there should be separate independent colleges for this purpose, each regulating its own teaching and examinations and awarding its own certificates. Mr. Bamapada Dutt,¹ Mr. Altaf Ali,¹ and Rai Bahadur Bagvati Sahay¹ share this view. Mr. Mohini Mohan Chatterji² maintains that the University should not assume the charge of technical education "to the impairment of its true aim—the formation of character and the improvement and expansion of the intellect." The position of Mr. Jatindra Chandra Guha is that if the University is to take the responsibility of founding institutions of this nature, it should obtain special funds for the purpose and not "divert any portion of the income of the general department of the University to any special purposes like these."¹

54. Mr. R. P. Paranjpye¹ insists that a university should not recognise mere technical training, though it may do so without objection where such training is combined with pure science. He holds that universities should work in close co-ordination with technological institutes, though these two types of institution should be kept separate. The view of Rai Satis Chandra Sen Bahadur² is that, while the University should deal with applied chemistry, industrial training generally, including training in

¹ Question 7.

² Question 8.

commerce and banking, ought to be carried on in colleges or institutes which should be founded by Government and controlled by it for a period—the suggestion is 15 years—and then handed over to suitable corporate bodies ; for example the banking institute would be handed over to a corporate body of bankers.

55. With the view which emphasises the necessity for the university hall-mark we have already dealt in discussing the question of an academic training in commerce.¹ We recognise the dangers of this view but we cannot ignore it, for it is a vital factor of the problem.

“The pursuit of a degree,” writes Mr. F. W. Südmersen, the Principal of the Cotton College, Gauhati, “is the prevalent fashion in India. We may accept it as a fact and endeavour to set aside limited views of the function of a university in the hope of directing pursuit to possibly more remunerative channels. But in the absence of ‘industry’ and of industries of an indigenous origin, the issue is doubtful. Where polytechnic schools suffice in England, the bribe of a degree must be offered in India. But, unless the peoples themselves change their habits, we shall in the end only create greater evils.”²

56. Dr. Nares Chandra Sen Gupta, the Vice-Principal of the Dacca Law College, puts the position as follows :—

“University education and degrees have got a very great social value in our society. . . . Naturally therefore a technical course outside the University would not attract the best young men nearly as strongly as a university course would. It would be unwise to lose the aid of this important asset in our attempt to direct the minds of our young men towards these vocational courses. A taste for them, it must be remembered, has to be very largely created.”³

Mr. Biraj Mohan Majumdar, the Vice-Principal of the Calcutta Law College and a member of the Syndicate of the Calcutta University, states that in India no course of training will command general respect, unless it is associated with a university degree.³

57. The weight of our evidence is in favour of the university providing and recognising courses of instruction and facilities for research in connexion with applied science and technology. Metallurgy and metal work, iron, steel and allied industries, various coal tar and oil and fat industries, leather tanning, dyeing, textiles, pottery, silk rearing, fish culture, fish curing, fish preserving and fish oil industries, chemical industries, glass making, paint, polish

¹ Paras. 36—40 above.

² Question 6.

³ Question 7.

and varnish manufacture, have all been mentioned as industries in the development of which the universities of Bengal should assist. "I am strongly of opinion," writes Dr. David Thomson¹ of the Cotton College, Gauhati, "that the University should provide or recognise approved courses of instruction in the applied sciences and technology of the existing industries and should also provide facilities for research in these branches of knowledge. Nothing would do more to link up the University with Indian industrial development of which the University ought to be the brain." Dr. Gilbert Walker's view is that "the University should provide courses, as far as possible, in . . . engineering, agriculture, technical chemistry, music, art and mining, and, where the University cannot conveniently provide them, it should recognise them." He also holds that "facilities for research should be provided, but not necessarily or entirely at the University. It might be more convenient for researches to be carried on at some institution recognised by the University."¹

58. Sir Nilotatan Sircar writes as follows :—

"Under the present conditions it is desirable for the university to organise education in applied science and technology in at least two standards, *viz.*, a high standard for degrees and a somewhat lower one for licences or diplomas. It matters little whether the University itself provides courses of instruction or recognises such instruction in affiliated institutions so long as the latter are under her control and are properly equipped. Further the university should provide facilities for research in these branches. . . .

A college of agriculture, a college of commerce, a college of technology in which leather-tanning, and dyeing, and some other chemical industries may be taught, should be maintained by the University of Calcutta. Further, some colleges may be affiliated to the University, their teachers being recognised by the University. Then again, certain institutions like the Geological Survey Department, the Pusa Institute, the Botanical Gardens of Calcutta, the Zoological Department of the Museum, etc., may be utilised for the purposes of training students in these subjects.

For this purpose, some of the experts and scientific men connected with these institutions must be recognised as university professors or lecturers."¹

59. Dr. Wali Mohammad,¹ Professor of Physics at Aligarh, goes further :—

"The university," he writes, "should provide the highest education and instruction in applied science and technology and offer every facility for research in these branches of knowledge. The Government could render the best service to the economic development of the country by giving special grants for

¹ Question 7.

carrying out research in applied science. The examples of State-fed research at the German universities and of public-supported research at Manchester and Birmingham can be safely imitated.

The university should take over all technological institutions, which should be regarded as departments of the University. The University should not only supervise and control the teaching, but should take the responsibility of attending to the residence and the general training of the students. The advantages of creating a university atmosphere by bringing together the teachers and students in arts, science, technology, etc., together, and the facility in providing the various courses common to the various faculties become self-evident.¹

60. Mr. Wahed Hossain thinks that—

“the Indian universities should adopt the same methods and courses of instruction in applied science and technology as have been adopted by the modern universities of Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, etc., as qualifying for degrees or diplomas.”¹

He also advocates the provision by the university of facilities for research in applied science and technology and he argues that “unless proper incentive is given to research, the technological study will be barren.” Mr. Alfred Hay of the Tata Institute, Bangalore,¹ is of opinion that applied science and technology should form an important part of the scheme of any modern university and that degrees and diplomas should be granted in these subjects. He thinks that facilities for research should be provided in every subject taught at a university. On the other hand Mr. S. W. Cocks of the Burma Education Department, though he thinks that “the University should associate itself with the highest degree of instruction in applied science and technology,” holds that “the provision of facilities for research in these branches hardly falls within its province.”¹

61. One hundred and forty-three of our witnesses have replied to our question² whether higher technological training should, or should not, be segregated from other branches of higher education. Seventy-nine have expressed themselves in favour of segregation and sixty-four against it. But all these witnesses, whether they advocate segregation or not, are in favour of the University dealing with technological training. Mr. Jyotibhushan Bhaduri,¹ Professor of Chemistry at the Presidency College, remarks that duplication is both wasteful and unnecessary, and that the same college, if

¹ Question 7.

² Question 7 (li).

properly equipped, should carry on teaching work both in pure and applied science. Sir J. C. Bose¹ writes that there is no reason why there should be segregation of higher technological training from other branches of higher education; adding that segregation in the present stage of finance will make higher technological training an impossibility. Dr. David Thomson sees nothing but advantage to all concerned in the direct association of higher technological training with the other branches of higher education.

"The combination," he continues, "is successful in Europe and I know no reason why it should not be successful in India. Indeed it is all the more necessary here if the mind of young India is to be weaned from its traditional idealism."¹

We quote below the view of Mr. Patrick Geddes:—

"The segregation of technological teaching from the older higher education in Germany, and largely in other countries seems to have arisen from two reasons, on one side the passive or active prejudice and jealousy with which the old professions have in the main regarded the new ones, and especially the technological ones, and on the other the reciprocal disrespect with which active energy is wont to look at the older professions, as of well-endowed convention and the like. How far this view of each other as in short preponderatingly fossil or Philistine respectively, is or has been just, how far unjust, need not here be discussed, since the violence of both views is happily abating.

The way in which pure science and its application may be cultivated, with new efficiency for both and harmony accordingly, is well illustrated by the recent Edinburgh University Institute of Mathematics, the whole building of a former training college transformed into work-rooms in which beginners, advanced students, and the investigators, and these in pure mathematics and its applications as to statistical and actuarial work, as to mechanical, civil, electrical and aerial engineering, etc., all now find their place under a teacher of organising genius and, of course, with due and increasing staff."¹

62. The view of those who advocate segregation is based mainly on the apprehension that, without it, the training will be too academic and not sufficiently practical. This apprehension has induced some of our correspondents to advocate the establishment of a separate technological university.

"Calcutta affords," writes Mr. A. C. Datta, "a good opportunity for possessing a university of the modern type for the study of higher applied sciences and technology; and, for that reason, a university is necessary for Calcutta alone which ought to be separated from the classical university of the purely idealistic kind. I do consider that the time has come to differentiate the university functions of two different kinds. In that case, the modern

¹ Question 7.

Calcutta University should undertake the teaching of all the technical and professional branches of studies, which are to be excluded from the curricula of the other university, which is to be for the purpose of purely ideal education.”¹

63. Mr. Atul Chandra Sen feels that a new organisation is wanted and he therefore makes the following suggestion :—

“Now the question is what the University can do for industrial and agricultural education in this country. It would of course be very easy to found degrees in commerce, agriculture and technology. But merely holding examinations or conferring degrees will not solve the problem of technical education. What is wanted is the founding of schools and colleges for such education and giving practical training to the students. All this requires expert knowledge and co-operation of Government, the public and especially the mercantile community. The academic universities are hardly in a position to undertake this work. I would therefore suggest the establishment of a separate technological university which would incorporate and expand all the different institutions now giving technical education in the province. But the academic universities may provide all the necessary scientific education preliminary to the admission of students into the technical institutions. For this purpose it would be necessary to introduce the teaching of elementary science in schools and those who would be desirous of joining a technical institution may continue their studies in science at the high school and the collegiate stages.”²

64. Dr. P. Neogi¹ of the Rajshahi College, suggests that owing to the financial stringency caused by the war it will be difficult for Government to find funds for the proposed Calcutta Technological Institute. On the other hand “Government is pledged to establish a university at Dacca.” His proposal is therefore that the Dacca University should be wholly a technological university. Mr. Baroda Prosau Dey¹ advises that technological training should not form a department or departments of the University, but should be placed under boards of experts, the University exercising general control and granting degrees and diplomas. Mr. Manmathanath Banerji¹ thinks that the best solution would be the creation of several departments of technology and applied science under the University with provision for the inclusion of experts—representatives of Government, manufacturing and trading concerns, on the governing bodies—but he recommends that all departments of applied science and technology should remain outside the control of the academic senate and syndicate of the existing constitution. Mr. P. Basu¹ thinks that the department of applied science and technology should be an entirely separate branch

¹ Question 7.

² Question 6.

of the University. Many advocate the constitution of a faculty of applied science and technology. The strongest supporter of this is Rajah Reshee Case Law, a man of wide commercial interests.

"The department of applied science and technology," he writes, "should not form part of the Faculty of Arts. If it does, it would necessarily occupy a subsidiary place in that Faculty, and in the course of time the department may die of inanition."¹

65. Those of our correspondents who think that the University should take up technological training hold various opinions as to the scope of that training. Some advocate a system of technological courses starting from the matriculation stage and leading both to diplomas and degrees. Others favour degree courses only and those starting from the intermediate stage. A third section—and this is the smallest—hold that the University should not attempt to train in technology any but graduates, though some of the advocates of this policy recognise that the work done for the degree examination by prospective technological students should bear definitely on the subsequent technological training. These correspondents who fall under the last of the above categories maintain that it is not the business of the University to train workmen.

"The technological side of the University," writes Justice Sir Asutosh Chaudhuri, "should be open to students who have received adequate training in pure science. Workmen or mechanics are not to be created by the University, but intelligent and scientifically trained workers able to work for themselves and instruct others."¹

The Bengal Landholders' Association² has written in almost identical terms.

66. Some of our correspondents hold that the University should supervise and control and, if possible, provide, technical training in all its grades. Thus Mr. Radhakamal Mukerjee² advises that the University should organise vocational classes for boys of 14 years and upwards in wood-working, metal-working, electrical work, printing and textiles with special reference to the typical trades, arts and handicrafts of particular regions and centres. Proposals of this sort are doubtless due mainly to a dislike of Government departmental control and the feeling that the University is the nearest approach to a public and representative educational authority. Mr. Baikuntha Nath Bhattacharyya² states that in his opinion

¹ Question 7.

² Question 6.

“education in all its aspects should be diffused, directed, supervised and controlled by the University” and that “as such no branch of learning, intellectual, commercial, industrial or economic can be considered outside its province.” “In any case, even if the University,” writes Mr. P. Basu,¹ “be not called upon to undertake technical and technological training, some public body other than the Government, constituted more or less after the University, should be the controlling body as to the internal administration, as to the selection of courses of study, and as to the approval, if not the appointment, of the staff.”

67. We have discussed elsewhere the suggestion that the University should assume the functions of a public authority for all grades of education.² For the purposes of this chapter we may quote a passage from the evidence of Mr. E. F. Tipple, Professor at the Roorkee College :—

“In India much confusion has existed between high and low grade technical education, and it is only now being realised administratively that the high grade must be reared on foundations laid in the secondary schools.”³

We endorse Mr. Tipple's views in this matter.

68. Dr. Brajendranath Seal has written in a similar strain :—

“We cannot build an edifice of technology in the University except on a sound foundation of sense training, manual training and the cultivation of resourcefulness and individuality. . . . The problem is to create business aptitude and industrial interest in a gentle and genteel literate folk, a change of *venue*, in fact, in a whole people or race, and for this what is wanted is a uniform distribution of pressure in all strata and all stages, and not a top-heavy or a bottom-heavy education; even though it should cease to be purely literary.”³

¹ Question 6.

² See Chapter XXVIII, paras. 63-67.

³ Question 7.

CHAPTER XXVII.

GOVERNANCE AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALCUTTA.

I.

1. In a previous chapter¹ we have traced the historical development of the University of Calcutta. At the time of its foundation under the Universities Act of 1857 its chief officers were the Chancellor, and the Vice-Chancellor assisted by the Registrar. The Senate, whose members were called Fellows, was the ultimate authority of the University, subject to such powers as were reserved to Government.² Provision was also made for the creation of academic authorities called Faculties.

2. The constitution of the University, as defined by the Act of 1857, remained undisturbed until the Universities Act of 1904 was passed after an inquiry conducted by the Universities Commission of 1902. The Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal was then appointed Rector of the University: the Syndicate was recognised as the executive authority; and changes were made in the composition of the Senate whereby the privilege was granted both to the Faculties and to the registered graduates to elect a certain proportion of the Fellows.

II.—*The Senate.*

3. Under the Universities Act of 1857, the general control of the University was placed in the hands of the Senate, consisting at that time of 38 Fellows in addition to the Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor; of these Fellows nine were *ex-officio* and 29 were ordinary. It was provided that the minimum number of Fellows (exclusive of the Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor) should be thirty, and that after the passing of the Act all the ordinary Fellows should be nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

¹ Chapter III.

² Chapter XXVIII.

No maximum number of Fellows was fixed. The first Senate¹ included the principals of all the colleges situated in Calcutta, two judges, two leaders of the Bar, five ecclesiastics, two directors of public instruction, two inspectors of schools, five doctors, and five military officers taken mainly from the scientific services. The original intention was obviously that the Senate should be a small body of men, competent to give advice to Government on the development of higher education in Bengal and to supervise the activities of the affiliated institutions.

4. In the course of time the idea sprang up that the Senate should be a more representative body. In 1890, Lord Lansdowne, as an experiment, decided that he would exercise his power of appointment to two Fellowships on the recommendation of the graduates of the University, who were to make their choice by a process of election. It was subsequently decided from time to time how many new Fellows should be appointed by the Governor-General on his own initiative and how many after selection by the graduates.

5. The Universities Commission² found that the Senates were too bulky in numbers and incapable of exercising proper control in educational matters. In 1900 the number of Fellows in Calcutta had risen to 200, the maximum point reached. At the end of 1901-02 there were 181 Fellows, including the Vice-Chancellor and the *ex-officio* Fellows, and of this total 21 had been elected. The diminution was the result of Lord Curzon's abstention from the filling of vacancies. In certain other universities the increase in the number of the Senate had been even more marked than in Calcutta, the number of Fellows in Bombay University being as many as 305, and in Madras 208. It appears from the report of the Universities Commission² that a Fellowship was often regarded as a distinction bestowed by way of compliment, without due regard to the qualifications of the recipient; and that this method of appointment led to considerable apathy and irregular attendance on the part of many of the Fellows.

6. The Commission did not approve of trusting to a more careful policy in the matter of future appointments to effect the

¹ Universities Commission Report of 1902, para. 11.

² Report, para. 33.

changes which they desired, nor did they recommend the repeal of the Acts of Incorporation and the reconstitution of the universities. They adopted instead a middle course, and advised¹ that :—

(a) The existing Senates should be dissolved and new Fellows appointed mainly or partly from the existing Fellows.

(b) The number of ordinary Fellows in Calcutta should be limited to one hundred.

(c) Power should be taken to distribute the Fellows according to Faculties.

(d) The system of election by graduates should be confirmed by statute ; and the elected Fellows should not exceed one-tenth of the whole.

(e) A time limitation of five years should be imposed on the tenure of ordinary Fellowships, whether made by appointment or by election.

(f) The bestowal of the appointment of Fellowship should be based on academic, as opposed to complimentary, grounds.

(g) The existing Fellows not appointed to the Senate should retain the distinction of an honorary Fellowship.

(h) Honorary Fellowships might be conferred on benefactors and others who deserved well of the University.

7. Sir Gooroo Dass Banerjee,² in a note of dissent, advocated the idea that the Senate should be a more representative body. He thought that it would be unfair to leave many of the existing Fellows with the empty honour of a name without giving them any direct or indirect voice in the management of the University. He also feared lest the temporary character of the tenure of office by the members of the Senate might tend to impair their independence and incline them sometimes to decide questions not according to their merits but according to the wishes of those with whom the power of re-appointment virtually rested. He desired that the existing Fellows should retain some substantial privileges, that the independence of the Senate should not be infringed, that the elective element should be increased and gradually improved, believing that the non-educational members of the Senate would be useful in deciding broad and conflicting questions of policy. He recommended the constitution of two bodies, an outer, the body of Fellows, and an inner, the Senate. The existing Fellows were to be retained in office, the number of Fellowships being fixed at 250. Of the total number of Fellows appointed annually, one-third were to be elected by graduates of a certain

¹ Report, paras. 33-43.

² Report, pages 73-76.

rank or standing, subject to the approval of the Chancellor, and the remainder appointed by Government. All Fellows were to hold office for life. They were to enjoy the privilege of voting for the university representatives on the Local Legislature and the Municipality, and also of electing one half of the Senate; but they were not to have the right of voting on any other question connected with the University.

8. Sir Gooroo Dass Banerjee proposed further that the Calcutta Senate should consist of one hundred members, excluding the *ex-officio* Fellows, half to be elected by the Fellows from among their own number and the other half to be appointed by the Chancellor or the Government from among the Fellows. The elections and nominations were to be so arranged that in each case half should be college professors and the other half officials and non-officials not engaged in teaching. The tenure of office was to be for five years.

9. The Universities Act of 1904 was passed very largely in accordance with the recommendations of the majority of the Commission so far as the composition of the Senate was concerned. The number of *ex-officio* members was raised from nine to ten and can be altered within this limit by Government. The present *ex-officio* members are (1) the Chief Justice of the High Court of Judicature in Bengal, (2) the Lord Bishop of Calcutta, (3) the Ordinary Member for Education of the Council of the Governor-General in India, (4—6) the Members of the Bengal Executive Council, (7) the Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, (8) the Director of Public Instruction, Burma, (9) the Director of Public Instruction, Assam. Exclusive of the Chancellor, the Rector, the Vice-Chancellor and these *ex-officio* Fellows, the Senate now consists of one hundred members who are termed Ordinary Fellows.

10. Statutory recognition was also given under the Act to the privilege of election. Twenty Fellows are now elected, ten by the registered graduates and ten by the Faculties. The right of voting for the former category is limited to graduates holding the degree of Doctor or of Master and to other graduates of ten years' standing. The elections by Faculties and nominations by the Chancellor are made in such a manner as to secure that not less than two-fifths of the Fellows so elected and so nominated respectively shall be persons following the profession of education.

The tenure of office of an ordinary Fellow is five years. The election of a Fellow is made subject to the approval of the Chancellor. If an ordinary Fellow has not attended a meeting of the Senate other than Convocation during a period of one year, the Chancellor may declare his office to be vacated. All those who had been Fellows of the University previous to the Act and were not included in the new Senate received the distinction of an honorary Fellowship and retained the right of voting for the university representative on the Legislative Council.

11. The Senate, thus reformed, continued to be the body corporate of the University and the ultimate authority in all matters connected with the University, except for special powers¹ reserved to the Government of India or to the Chancellor. Certain special powers are in the first instance reserved to the Syndicate, but the Senate is entitled to revise the decisions of that body.

12. In addition to the Chancellor, and in Calcutta the Rector, the Senates of the older universities are composed as follows:—

University.	<i>Ex-officio</i> .	Nominated.	Elected by Graduates.	Elected by Faculties.	Elected by Senate.	Total excluding <i>ex-officio</i> members.
Calcutta . . .	9	80	10	10	...	100
Madras . . .	6	80	10	10	...	100
Bombay . . .	6	80	10	10	...	100
Allahabad . . .	9	60	5	5	5	75
Punjab . . .	10	60	10	5	...	75

From this table it will be seen that the Senates of all these universities are constituted on the same lines, except that those of Allahabad and the Punjab have each only 75 members, excluding the *ex-officio* Fellows; and that at Allahabad the Senate has the privilege of electing five of its members. The other powers of the Senate are the same in all cases.

13. We have given much thought to the composition of the Senate, the appointment of its members and its functions; and the Government of India have drawn our attention to these matters in particular. The answers to many of our questions

¹ Chapter XXVIII.

display a widespread dissatisfaction with the composition and powers of the Senate, though there is a sharp division of opinion as to the remedies which should be applied. Some speak disparagingly of the results of election, while others advise that the principle of election should be materially extended. Again, while some suggest that the control of academic matters should be vested in the teachers, others are opposed to any reduction in the authority of the Senate.

14. The Senate is, in our opinion, too small a body to be adequately representative of all the interests which go to make up a national institution of learning ; and it is at the same time too large a body for the effective control of educational administration.

15. Confined as it is to a small number of *ex-officio* Fellows and a hundred ordinary Fellows, the Senate cannot be an adequately representative body. One of the most important changes effected under the Universities Act of 1904 was the provision that two-fifths of the ordinary Fellows should be associated with the profession of teaching. But no college as a place of learning is represented as such on the Senate ; and there are many colleges in which no member of the staff is a member of the Senate. The recognised schools also, though they come under the control of the University, have no representatives. Though the University deals with the higher education of women, no woman has yet been included in the Senate.

16. For many years there have been advocates of a direct representation of colleges and teachers on the Senate. During the discussions in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1904 the late Mr. Gokhale suggested that one-third of the Senate should be either elected by or assigned to the colleges ; and an amendment to the Universities Bill was also proposed with the object of providing that representation by election should be given to the registered teachers of institutions affiliated to the University. Sir Thomas Raleigh who was in charge of the Bill sympathised with the proposal, but anticipated great difficulties in drawing up a satisfactory register of such teachers. He therefore opposed the amendment which was rejected by the Council.

17. Some of our correspondents have made similar suggestions. Sir Ramkrishna Bhandarkar¹ suggests that " the staffs of these

¹ Question 14.

colleges should be formed into a constituency and allowed to elect twenty-five ordinary Fellows." Mr. Promode Chandra Dutta¹ recommends that "the professors of colleges should elect thirty members from among themselves, each first-grade college having one representative and each second-grade college getting a representative every three years." Mr. C. V. Raman¹ thinks that "it is a matter of elementary justice, and in the best interests of education, that at least 50 per cent of the members should be Indian teachers." The functions of the Senate being what they are, it is clear that a large number of teachers should find places on the Senate; for the courses of study and the methods of examination which so vitally affect their teaching are determined by regulations which can only be altered by the Senate, subject to the sanction of Government.

18. The Faculties of Law, Medicine and Engineering elect members of the Senate; but there is no assured representation of the general bodies of learned professions other than that of university teaching. It is regrettable that the interests of industry and commerce are as such unprovided for. At a time when the University is contemplating a great departure in the teaching of commercial and industrial subjects, the Bengal Chamber of Commerce and the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce have no opportunities of expressing directly their views on the Senate through the agency of accredited representatives. Agriculture again has no definite place or standing in a university which serves the needs of provinces containing a vast rural population. We have already had occasion to refer to the lack of contact between the University and the leading zamindars of the province.² It should be added that, though the headquarters of the University are in Calcutta, the Corporation of that city has no official connexion with the University.

19. The constitution of the Senate makes no provision for the representation of communities. At the time when we began our enquiry the Senate included 42 Europeans, 48 Hindus, 8 Musalmans and 2 Indian Christians. The Musalmans feel strongly that they have a smaller representation than is reasonable in view of the fact that the proportion of Musalmans to the total

¹ Question 14.

² Chapter II, para. 15.

population of Bengal is slightly over half. The ambitions and the grievances of Musalmans form a difficult and important problem which is dealt with in a separate chapter of this report.

20. The conflicting claims of the several provinces which are included within the jurisdiction of the University also present grave difficulties of adjustment. From the province of Burma there are only two representatives, one of these being the Director of Public Instruction who is an *ex-officio* Fellow. During our visit to Assam officials and non-officials alike expressed the keenest disappointment at the very scanty representation of Assam on the Senate, though practically all were united in a desire for closer contact with the University. Colonel P. R. T. Gurdon¹ has drawn our attention to the fact that there are only four Fellows in the whole of Assam, and that "there is not one representative of Assamese Hindus who form the bulk of the population of the province."

21. Many parts of the Bengal mufassal also are placed in a similarly unfavourable position. Our witnesses from Chittagong, for example, complained that, since the temporary transfer of the Principal of the Chittagong College to Calcutta, that division has been totally unrepresented on the Senate. We made inquiries also at Rajshahi and Rangpur in this connexion and were told that there is only one Fellow, the Principal of the Rajshahi College, in the whole of the northern division; and yet in spite of its remoteness, this is a division in which we found strong feelings of loyalty and affection towards the University, and in which there are signs of considerable development, as is evidenced by the progress of the Rajshahi College and by the large benefactions which have lately been given towards the foundation of the Carmichael College, Rangpur.

22. Another defect in the existing order of things is, in our judgment, the method of appointment to the Senate. Eighty of the ordinary Fellows are nominated by the Chancellor, ten are elected by the registered graduates and ten by the Faculties. The existing principle of nomination, tempered by a limited measure of election, has failed to effect that contact with many of the forces

¹ Question 14.

which are essential to the well-being of the University. We wish to record our opinion that the right of nomination has been exercised with a keen desire to do justice to conflicting claims and interests and to include on the Senate men of eminence and of experience in educational matters. These duties require an intimate and first-hand knowledge of men and things; no authority, however single-minded, can effectively carry them out in a place many hundreds of miles distant from the headquarters of the University.

23. In his note of dissent to the report of the Universities Commission, Sir Gooroo Dass Banerjee expressed fears that the principle of nomination allied with the temporary tenure of the posts would impair materially the independence of the Fellows. It appears that in another province some years ago pressure was brought¹ to bear on certain official members of the Senate by its Government. But there is no evidence that such pressure has ever been exerted in Bengal. Indeed, one of the main difficulties has been that the Government of India, far from influencing unduly the discussions in the Senate, has been unable to expound its own policy effectively. We shall return to this question in the next chapter.

24. Advisable as it may be to make use of nomination as a means of securing the right composition—at once representative and administratively homogeneous—in a small body charged with executive functions, we are doubtful whether nomination is the best method to adopt in a predominant degree for the constitution of a large body, the main function of which should be to keep an execu-

¹ "When in 1908 the syllabus of the Bombay University was thought unsatisfactory, officers of the Indian Educational Service who were members of the Senate were expected by Government to give unquestioning support to a scheme of studies, in the framing of which they had had no previous opportunity of expressing an opinion." Memoranda of Mr. A. L. Covernton and certain members of the Indian Educational Service, Bombay. Public Services Commission, Question 84, 421.

"In his own experience, educational officers had had a free hand in all matters relating to the universities, but he gathered that in recent years they had received instructions as to the mind of Government in certain matters. Their influence would be very much greater if they were known always to be speaking their own minds, rather than acting as the mouthpieces of official policies." Evidence of Dr. Mackichan before the Public Services Commission, Question 84, 582.

"Government should not . . . endeavour to influence debates on special subjects in the Senate." Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, Question 14.

five in touch with public opinion. In such a case it is desirable that the members of the large body should feel that in a real sense they are spokesmen of special bodies of experience and, though not to the prejudice of their own independence of judgment, responsible for giving expression to the view which those bodies entertain.

25. Another view is expressed in the evidence. Mr. Mark Hunter,¹ writing from Madras, has told us emphatically that "unless the Indian universities continue to be assured of Government protection and control, that is to say, unless Government continues to nominate the great majority of Fellows in university Senates ... nothing but steady deterioration in our universities is to be looked for." We think it right to say that in the University of Calcutta the electors have used their several suffrages to place on the Senate many public men of standing who should be included under any system of appointment and who, in fact, are among those who play an important part in administering the affairs of the University.

26. The majority of our correspondents advocate a large increase in the elective element on the Senate, though very few have offered any constructive suggestions. The most common recommendation is that the number of members selected by the registered graduates should be largely increased.

27. There is a general impression that election by the Faculties has proved far more successful than election by the registered graduates. Dr. Hiralal Haldar¹ states that "few self-respecting persons, unless they are men of great eminence, have the chance of being elected under the present system." He is therefore prepared to suggest that "the right of election at present enjoyed by registered graduates should be taken away."

28. Out of more than 8,000 graduates only 832 are now registered on the electoral roll. This indicates clearly that the privilege of electing members of the Senate has not proved to any substantial extent a means of enlisting in the service of the University a body of graduates loyal to its interests and devoted to its advancement. It may be that the limitation of the franchise to graduates—apart from masters and doctors—of ten years' standing

¹ Question 14.

has made graduates reluctant to become registered, because by that time they have lost intimate contact with the University. It is significant that the Dacca University Committee¹ recommended that all graduates of over four years' standing should be granted the privilege of registration. We believe that this apparent indifference of the Calcutta graduates to their *alma mater* is mainly due to the present system of organisation ; for during our tours we have met many graduates, some living in remote parts of the mufassal, who entertain warm feelings of regard for the University. It is a matter for regret that their valuable support has not hitherto been made available for university purposes.

29. The Muslim deputation which met us in Calcutta suggested that 30 per cent of the Fellows should be Musalmans. "These," they thought, "might be selected, . . . partly by the Muslim educational officers, partly by the Muslim members of the governing bodies of colleges and hostels, and the rest might be nominated by the Governor."² Other Musalmans with whom we discussed the matter told us frankly that the privilege of voting under present conditions and with the existing electorates is in no way commensurate with the expense of registration.

30. A few of our correspondents suggest that an expansion of the elective privilege should not be confined to the teachers or the registered graduates. Sir Nilratan Sircar³ suggests that the commercial and industrial interests, and the interests of the different professions of law, medicine, engineering, and the Corporation should be recognised as having a voice in the conduct of university education. Mr. R. P. Paranjpye³ makes the same suggestion in more general terms: "The large majority (of the Fellows) should be elected by electorates of various kinds."

31. The composition of the Senate and the methods of appointment to it ought to depend very largely on its functions. The Universities Commission held that the Senate must be, in the main, a body of experts, and that it should be protected against the incursions of voters brought together in large numbers only by the prospect of an election or by a debate on some question which had been agitated out of doors.⁴ It is doubtless for the

¹ Report, page 132.

² General Memoranda, page 210.

³ Question 14.

⁴ Universities Commission Report, para. 42.

same reason that Government has insisted on so large a proportion of nominated members ; and the necessity for such a proportion has been accentuated in recent years by the fact that the University has undertaken very considerable teaching responsibilities. The management of post-graduate teaching and research must be in the hands of experts. The Senate itself, conscious of its limitations in these respects, has recently constituted, with the sanction of Government, the Post-Graduate Councils in Arts and in Science which consist almost entirely of teachers and are responsible for the main teaching activities of the University.

32. The present accumulation of functions in the Senate has prevented the University from enlisting in its service the activity of many representative men. The functions of the Senate being so numerous and varied, its meetings must be both frequent and prolonged. Hence it is clearly impracticable to include among the Fellows any considerable number of men from distant regions. Even those who are so included must inevitably face the alternative of neglecting either their duties at home or those in Calcutta. We made definite inquiries in this connexion from the principal of a college not far remote from Calcutta who has taken a leading part in the activities of the University, and have come to the conclusion that, in spite of his energy and enthusiasm, his college duties must inevitably suffer in consequence. The principals of two more distant colleges gave us rough estimates of the time spent by each away from his college on university business. In both cases it appeared to us inevitable that their necessary absence must interfere with college work. This difficulty moreover is not confined to mufassal members. Fellows resident in Calcutta cannot find it easy to spare the time for Senate meetings. For example, Sir Leonard Rogers told us that it was primarily for this reason that he had been forced to sever his connexion with the Senate.

33. The variety of topics which must be discussed at each meeting of the Senate presents further difficulties. The hard-worked teacher is anxious to improve the courses and curricula, the conduct of examinations, and the methods of teaching. Yet he has to listen to long discussions in which he takes little interest ; and, when at last his own proposals come under discussion, they may be mangled beyond recall by men who have never taught a class or had any experience of college organisation. The busy professional or

commercial man again may be willing to assist the University in its general policy and business organisation, but to do so he is obliged to listen to many weary hours of discussion on matters of academic importance about which he can know little or nothing whatever.

34. The Senate therefore, as at present constituted, is an unsatisfactory compromise between two ideals. By reason of certain duties at present imposed upon it, its numbers have to be kept within limits which preclude adequate representation of all the categories of experience concerned. On the other hand, the necessity of securing the presence of some practical men of affairs denies to it the special character and value of an expert academic body. Both elements—expert academic knowledge and the experience of men engaged in non-academic business—are indispensable to a university. But the constitution of the University should be so framed as to assign to each its proper place in the preliminary discussions which issue in university policy, allowing to each element full representation in appropriate committees and assigning to a supreme executive, in general business and in educational questions alike, the duty of weighing the contributions made by academic and non-academic experience respectively, and of preventing the misunderstanding and misjudgments which arise from the disregard of either.

III.—The administration of the University.

35. We now pass on to discuss the administration of the University, the appointment and duties of its chief officers, the composition and functions of its executive authority, the Syndicate.

36. The Chancellor is the Governor-General of India for the time being, his chief duties being to preside over the annual Convocation, to nominate to eighty of the Fellowships, and to approve the remaining twenty of the Fellows who are elected.¹

37. The Universities Commission of 1902² recommended that the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal should be appointed Rector of the University with precedence next to the Chancellor, but without prejudice to the right of the Vice-Chancellor to preside at meetings of the Senate. Under the Universities Act of 1904 the Rector is

¹ Chapter XXVIII.

² Report, para. 38.

entitled to preside over meetings of the Senate. In view of the intimate relation which existed between the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal and the University by reason of the influence exercised by the latter on education in Bengal, the Government of India considered it expedient after the passing of the Act that provision should be made for associating the Rector more closely with the administration of the University than had previously been the case. They therefore decided in 1906 that all letters addressed by them to the Registrar of the Calcutta University should be forwarded through the Rector except in cases of such urgency as to require direct communication with the Registrar. Similarly all correspondence addressed by the University to the Government of India must be submitted through the Rector. When the territorial re-adjustments of 1912 were effected, the question was raised whether the Governor of Bengal could replace the Lieutenant-Governor in the office of Rector without amendment of the Act ; but no amendment was considered necessary, and therefore the Governor of Bengal has discharged the duties of Rector. The proposal that, as in the other Indian universities, the head of the province in which the University is situated should become the Chancellor will be discussed in the next chapter. We would, however, add at once that, in our opinion, to confine the Governor of Bengal merely to advisory functions in regard to an institution which plays so vital a part in the life of the Presidency, is a disadvantage to all concerned.

38. The Vice-Chancellor is appointed by the Governor-General in Council for a period of two years, but his tenure of office may be extended by that authority. In the absence of the Chancellor and of the Rector, he presides over Convocation and meetings of the Senate ; and he is the Chairman of the Syndicate.

39. We are indebted to the late Vice-Chancellor, Sir Deva Prasad Sarbadhikari, for valuable information in regard to the duties which devolve upon the Vice-Chancellor. He showed how exacting these duties have now become owing to the growing volume and complexity of university business and to the length and frequency of the meetings of the Senate and Syndicate. The pressure of work has become so great that few men with other claims upon their time could possibly do more than keep themselves abreast of the details of the current business coming up for discussion at the bodies over which the Vice-Chancellor officially

presides. Some of our members spent several days in the University office and can testify to the mass of work which is thrown upon the Vice-Chancellor, even since he has been relieved of the responsibility for the organisation and control of the post-graduate classes.

40. Some of our correspondents have suggested that, in consequence of the growth of the work devolving upon the University, the time has come when the Vice-Chancellorship should be made a whole-time office and therefore necessarily a paid one. We recognise the success with which eminent men, though engaged in other avocations, have combined the work of Vice-Chancellor with outside duties, and are aware that the presence of a distinguished man discharging the duties of Vice-Chancellor in an honorary capacity has been a source of strength to the University. But our inquiry has led us to agree with those of our correspondents who feel that it has now become necessary that the chief responsible officer of the University should have time to keep in closer touch with the detailed work of the several boards and institutions which are embraced in the university organisation, to think out the great problems now confronting higher education in Bengal and to act from hour to hour as the link between the different parts of an organisation, already complicated and now needing further differentiation. We think that the time must soon come when, if the post continues to be honorary, the Government will be unable to find a man at once qualified and sufficiently leisured to discharge, in addition to other duties, those of the Vice-Chancellorship.

41. There are certain salaried officers of the University. The principal of these are the Registrar, the Inspector of Colleges, and the Controller of Examinations, all appointed by the Senate. The Registrar acts as secretary to the Senate and to the Syndicate and is responsible for the proper conduct of the administrative work of the University.

42. In the course of our inquiry we have given considerable attention to the organisation of the administrative offices of the University, and to the procedure followed in the transaction of university business. Dr. Brühl, at that time Registrar, gave evidence before us on these matters and furnished us at our request with a written statement showing the very numerous categories of work to which the Registrar of the University and his assistants

are required to attend.¹ In addition to this, a delegation from our number paid several visits to the office of the Registrar and with his assistance acquainted themselves with its general organisation and with its methods of dealing with records and correspondence.

43. What we have thus seen of the inner working of the mechanism of the University leads us to record our appreciation of the assiduity and patience with which Dr. Brühl discharged the responsible and intricate duties of the Registrar, and of the care given by him and by his assistants to the manifold details of the business committed to their charge. By permission of the Syndicate, we were allowed to make an extensive inquiry into the organisation of the Registrar's office and to inspect the files of documents bearing upon the particular cases which we selected for investigation. In any paper which came under our inspection, the précis prepared for the use of the Syndicate and Senate was accurately terse and gave a clear summary of the facts and issues upon which the university authorities had been called upon to reach a decision.

44. We found, however, that the work of the university office is done under unfavourable conditions. The arrangement of the rooms is inconvenient and unsatisfactory. Passages and a long flight of stairs, both of which are in practice open to strangers, separate the Registrar's room from the general office where the clerks work and the records are kept. No trained officer is in charge of the records. Delays in the production of papers are therefore not unusual. Dr. Brühl told us that occasionally he had to wait three days before a document was found. On other grounds it is undesirable that the Registrar should be so far removed from the work-rooms of the staff over which he has control. The clerks' offices are too accessible to the public. We learnt that it has become the practice, not perhaps unnaturally in the circumstances, but unwisely nevertheless, for members of the Senate to obtain on personal application confidential papers from the Registrar's subordinates without reference to the Registrar himself. That official's own office is used for the frequent meetings of the Syndicate and there is no accommodation for personal assistants in adjoining rooms. Thus, the present university offices have

¹ General Memoranda, page 394.

become unsuitable for their purposes, are inconveniently distributed, and inadequate in number and size. A re-arrangement, involving structural change, is advisable in order that the clerical work of the University may be organised more effectively and with more economical use of the time of the staff.

45. The staff is itself insufficient to cope with the present work of the University, especially at times of exceptional pressure which periodically recur. The office is disorganised by the heavy and urgent work of the examinations during several months in the year. At these times some relief might be given by the employment of temporary clerks. But the examination business is confidential and can be entrusted only to men in whom confidence may be reposed. Nor can the regular duties of the office be transferred at short notice to new comers unfamiliar with the technicalities involved. In fact the work of the University is of a nature which requires a permanent staff sufficiently large to deal with all the more responsible parts of the business at the times when the pressure is most severe. We have reason to fear that even in normal circumstances the office is shorthanded and that there is occasional delay in dealing with correspondence upon matters which require special investigation. Letters received by the University are not invariably acknowledged. The reasons for this practice are deficiency of staff and the desire to avoid expense. It is not deemed necessary to acknowledge cash remittances sent in payment of university fees, as these generally come from the mufassal by money order and in registered letters. The official correspondence, the whole of which is numbered and registered, is large, amounting to about 12,000 letters in the course of each year. Demi-official correspondence, which is similarly registered, is not included in this total.

46. It is at the head of the office that more highly skilled assistance seems to be needed. The Registrar is overburdened with detail which cannot be delegated to the existing staff. We do not allude here to the fact that he is required to sign with his own hand about 15,000 certificates every year, because it may be judged necessary that, as a proof of authenticity, each certificate should bear the signature of a high official written with his own hand. But a mass of other duties, which might be shared by responsible colleagues, occupy the Registrar's time, keep him too closely tied to his own room, and prevent him from dealing with difficult

matters which often arise unexpectedly and should receive immediate attention from him and from him alone. At present the time and thoughts of the most experienced and responsible of the university officers are absorbed too exclusively with business which should be distributed among others working under his direction and enjoying his full confidence. Whatever changes, however, may be made in the arrangement of the work, the duties of the Registrar must always be onerous in the highest degree. The more highly organised and active the University, the heavier the duties which must fall on the Registrar, and the greater the issues which must depend upon his wisdom, promptitude, insight and tact. It is because we anticipate a great development in the academic life of the University that we attach importance to a reorganisation and enlargement of the highest grades of its official staff. But even under the conditions which prevailed at the time of our visits, it was clear that the distribution of duties was imperfect and that the Registrar, in order to be able to deal with many matters falling within his personal province, needed further assistance and relief from some of the functions which he is now required to discharge. The diligence and self-denial with which Dr. Brühl endeavoured to keep abreast with university work may be gathered from the fact that, though his hours of daily duty in his office and at the University press were very long, he practically forewent all his holidays and was very frequently at his office till a late hour.

47. Throughout its existence the University has required an executive body, though no statutory authority was given to the Syndicate by the Act of 1857. At the first meeting of the Senate (January 3rd, 1857) antedating the passing of the Act by three weeks, it was resolved that—

“ Mr. Beadon, the Director of Public Instruction, Mr. Mullens, Lieutenant-Colonel Baker, Dr. Grant and Babu Ram Prasad Ray, together with the Vice-Chancellor, be appointed a provisional committee, with power to make such arrangement as may be required for the entrance examination, and for the transaction of the other necessary business of the University and also to frame the rules for the future Government of the University, such rules to be laid before the Senate for their approval; and that the committee have power to consult with the different Faculties, and

the Faculties have power to address the committee as occasion shall arise, touching such rules."

48. On June 6th, 1857, the Senate "finally resolved that the provisional committee be continued for the carrying on of the current business of the University." On September 5th of that year the Senate passed a revised by-law to the effect that "the executive government of the University shall be vested in a-Syndicate consisting of the Vice-Chancellor and six of the Fellows, who shall be elected for one year by the several Faculties." This by-law, as it appeared in the first calendar of the University (1858-59), added that three of the members should be elected by the Faculty of Arts and one each by the Faculties of Law, Medicine and Engineering. The same body of by-laws provided that the Syndicate should from time to time frame such by-laws and regulations as were necessary, subject to the approval of the Senate, and that no question should be considered by the Senate which had not in the first instance been considered and decided on by the Syndicate. In 1884-85, the representatives of the Faculty of Arts were increased in number by two, and those of Law and Medicine by one each ; so that the Syndicate comprised the Vice-Chancellor and ten members. There was no special provision for the inclusion of persons following the profession of education. No further changes were made until the Act of 1904.

49. The Universities Commission¹ of 1902 recommended that the Syndicate should be recognised by law as the executive authority of the University and that some of its powers should be exercised independently of the Senate. They expressed the view that it was undesirable that appointments made by the Syndicate, decisions in regard to the affiliation and disaffiliation of colleges, and exemptions from examination rules should be reviewed by the Senate. They held that the Syndicate should not be a large body and suggested nine as the minimum number of members and fifteen as the maximum ; and they accepted " the principle that a committee which exercises such large executive powers as have always been, and must always be, entrusted to the Syndicate, should be truly representative of the colleges and the professional staffs by which the practical work of the University is carried on." The Commission

¹ Report, paras. 50-51, pages 11-13 and pages 55-59.

recommended that the Director of Public Instruction should be *ex-officio* a member and vice-chairman, and that the members of the Syndicate should be elected by the Senate "in certain proportions to represent the several Faculties; the representatives of each Faculty to include one or more heads or professors of colleges according to the following rule; where not more than two members of the Senate are elected to represent a Faculty, one at least shall be a college head or professor; where more than two are thus elected, a majority at least shall be college heads or professors in that Faculty." This rule, however, they stated emphatically, was "not intended to limit the proportion of the teaching element in the Syndicate." The Commission advocated this mode of college representation in preference to other suggestions put before them on the ground that the circumstances of the various universities in respect of the number and distribution of their colleges were so different that it did not seem possible to frame any simple system of college representation that would be applicable to all.

50. The regulations made under the Act of 1904 departed to some extent from the recommendations of the Commission. The Act itself provides that "the executive government of the University shall be vested in the Syndicate." This provision is embodied in the Regulations (Chapter IV, Section 1); but Chapter IV, Section 15, of the Regulations provides that "the decision of the Syndicate on any matter whatever may be brought before the Senate by any member of the Senate; and the Senate may approve, revise or modify any such decision, or may direct the Syndicate to review it."

51. A further examination of the Regulations shows that the powers of the Syndicate are of two kinds:—

- (a) The more important matters of university business such as the institution and conferment of degrees, the making of regulations, the affiliation and disaffiliation of colleges, and indeed all matters not specifically reserved for the Syndicate under the Act, or regulations, must go before the Senate. In such matters the Syndicate prepares the business for the consideration and decision of the Senate.
- (b) Chapter IV of the regulations reserves certain matters for the decision of the Syndicate, subject in all cases to

review by the Senate under the conditions stated above. These matters include (i) the administration of the funds and the keeping of the accounts of the University ; (ii) questions relating to the recognition of, and withdrawal of recognition from, schools ; (iii) the appointment of examiners and of certain other officers of the University as prescribed by the regulations ; (iv) the making of rules for examinations in accordance with the regulations ; (v) correspondence with Government and other authorities and persons ; and (vi) the general conduct of the affairs of the University in accordance with the various instruments by which they are regulated.

52. The new regulations created a Syndicate consisting of the Vice-Chancellor, the Director of Public Instruction and fifteen ordinary Fellows elected for a period of one year as follows :—

- 4 by the Senate.
- 4 by the Faculty of Arts.
- 2 by the Faculty of Science.
- 2 by the Faculty of Law.
- 2 by the Faculty of Medicine.
- 1 by the Faculty of Engineering.

53. The Syndics elected by a Faculty must be Fellows belonging to that Faculty. Of the fifteen elected members at least seven must be either heads of or professors in colleges affiliated to the University, and of these two must be elected by the Senate, three by the Faculty of Arts, and one each by the Faculties of Science and Medicine ; such Syndics up to the stated minimum must be elected first at any elective meeting. Under the regulations all members of the Syndicate must “ ordinarily be resident in or near Calcutta.”

54. The Syndicate appears, both as to its composition and the conditions of its work, the least satisfactory of all the university bodies. The duties of a Syndic are so exacting and so miscellaneous that the University is deprived of the help of many whose experience would specially qualify them to assist it in its executive work.

55. The Syndicate is not constituted upon the basis of sectional representation ; but it is none the less to be regretted that among

its members the Musalmans are not represented, and have not been represented since 1904.

56. But it is the character of much of the business now submitted to the Syndicate which has caused us most surprise. The work of this small body of seventeen members, in whose hands is vested "the executive government of the University,"¹ is by no means confined to the determination of questions of principle and to the discussion of details in which a new question of principle is involved. It has been extended, whether by force of the university regulations or by practice, over a wide field of business, much of which might conveniently be entrusted to other and more appropriate bodies. Under the Act of 1904, the Syndicate has to consider every application requesting permission to appear at a university examination as a 'non-collegiate candidate'. Requests made on behalf of school boys and school girls for leave to alter the dates given in the entries of their birth come before the Syndicate for review and discussion. The Syndicate's attention is occupied even with points as minute as those raised in the following agendum which we quote from an agenda paper containing several others of a similar-kind.²

"A memorandum from the Inspector of Schools, Dacca Division, forwarding an application from Babu S. S. requesting that the break in the period of study of his brother K. S. who, after being unsuccessful at the matriculation examination in 1917, could not join the J. High English School earlier than 2nd December 1917 owing to the delay involved in obtaining a duplicate fee receipt, may be condoned so as to enable him to proceed to the next matriculation examination as a regular student."

We recognise the importance of keeping on behalf of the University a watchful supervision over the observance of the rules as to continuity of study and age-limits of entry to examinations, and are aware that the present regulations require the Syndicate to exercise that supervision and entrust to it alone the power of giving a reasonable interpretation to the rules. But it seems nevertheless desirable that details of this kind should be dealt with by a responsible committee on applications, entrusted with a reasonable degree of discretionary power.

¹ University Regulations, Chapter IV, 1.

² We are glad to hear that steps have recently been taken to classify the agenda under appropriate heads.

57. In present circumstances, items of business from the consideration of which a body such as the Syndicate should be relieved appear on the agenda paper (partly no doubt owing to the pressure under which it has to be prepared), intermixed with matters of great importance requiring the fullest and most careful attention. At a meeting, for example, a letter from the Secretary to the Government of Bengal, asking that the Legislative Council might be supplied with the opinions of the University on certain clauses of an important Bill appeared on the order paper between an application from a candidate whose appearance at an examination had been prevented by illness and a request from a secondary school for the continuance of provisional recognition for another year. It appears to us that the questions involved in the two last named items, and especially in the second of them, call rather for the consideration of well-informed special bodies able to give continuous attention to such matters than for that of the highest executive authority whose judgment must be somewhat distracted by a medley of business, the detailed discussion of which would make too great a claim upon its time. More than half of the present business of the Syndicate arises, we were told, from the conduct of the matriculation examination and the recognition of schools. Important as are these departments of business, they would be more appropriately dealt with by special boards.

58. So multitudinous are the matters of detail which come before the Syndicate that it is obliged to give to questions of general policy less attention than they deserve. Dr. Brühl, in reply to a question from us, stated in his oral evidence that the volume of work is so large that there is no body of people within the University which concentrates its attention on questions of broad policy. Throughout the year, except in the month of the Puja holidays, the Syndicate has to meet at least once a week. In one year it held as many as 55 meetings. The latter are prolonged and occupy on each occasion from at least two to four hours. So protracted are the individual meetings and so miscellaneous the business that, under the present conditions, it would be unreasonable to expect men with other heavy claims on their time to give full attendance at the meetings of such a body. The University is thus virtually deprived of the benefit which it would derive from the presence of two or three representative leaders of commerce and industry at its council board. In the consideration of

questions of public policy the University should be assisted by their practical judgment and wide knowledge of affairs. Their interest in the work of a university might open new careers to many students of promise. Their knowledge of its needs would dispose them to appeal in the right quarters for increased financial support; and their experience would be of special value in the development of new technological departments and in all other endeavours to adjust some of the academic courses more closely to the needs of practical life.

59. But, in spite of the time given by the hard-worked members of the Syndicate, the present arrangements for the conduct of the administrative business of the University do not effectively secure concentration of responsibility in the hands of that body. The existing system concentrates in a so-called executive the work rather of discussion than of deliberate decision. The Syndicate is overburdened with duties, many of which might with advantage be delegated or transferred to other bodies. The task for the discharge of which it appears to have been especially designed is executive control; even for this task it is in a great degree disabled by the pressure of miscellaneous details upon its thoughts and time. This pressure leads to congestion in university business and to delay. Nor is it easy for any member of the Syndicate, except the Vice-Chancellor, to see its work in just perspective. The order paper for each meeting is swollen at the last moment by supplementary agenda in which questions of great importance may find an unexpected place. The minutes of one meeting have very frequently not been circulated among the members before the next meeting is held. Thus it may happen that, though any such business would, we understand, be postponed at the request of a member, decisions have to be taken upon matters for which members have come unprepared; and any of the members may miss an opportunity of intervening upon a question in which he takes special interest unless he attends the whole of every meeting at a great (and, in the case of men otherwise pressed by business, impossible) expenditure of time.

60. Our inquiry therefore leads us to believe that the interests of the University would be better served and that the intentions of those who framed the present regulations would be more effectively fulfilled by a systematic re-distribution and re-classification

of university business, and by the assignment of different categories of its work to various bodies and officers according to the character of the questions concerned. The chief distinction might be drawn between matters mainly educational (including admission to a particular examination) and matters mainly administrative and financial. Each of these main divisions of business would fall into sub-divisions and these might conveniently be assigned to bodies formed appropriately for the purpose. Over each of the two main categories of business one authoritative body should exercise general supervision, reserving to itself the determination of new questions of principle. And of these two authoritative bodies, the one educational, the other mainly administrative, the latter should bear the responsibility of ultimate decision of all matters which, though in part educational, involve points of public administrative policy or of finance.

61. Should our proposals in regard to the reconstitution of the University be carried into effect, the University will enjoy the advice and assistance of experienced business men whose judgment will be of greatest value in regard to the organisation of the university office as well as in many other ways. Just as it is impossible to draw a sharp line of distinction in university business between educational and administrative problems—the categories being in some of their aspects interfused—so is it impossible successfully to organise a university office on the pattern of that of an ordinary business house, because regard must be had for the special conditions imposed by the educational character of the institution which it serves. Our inquiry however has led us to the conclusion that the chief remedy for the present congestion and delay will be found in a reconsideration of the functions of the university executive and in a re-distribution of its duties and powers; and, further, that the effective discharge of the administrative business of the University will call for new and more conveniently organised offices and for a considerable strengthening, especially in its higher grades, of the administrative and clerical staff.

IV.—Academic organisation.

62. Another serious defect in the organisation of the University is the absence of any authoritative direction by a body of scholars.

Under the new regulations of 1906 the number of Faculties in the University was increased from four to five by the splitting up of the Faculty of Arts into those of Arts and Science. There are now Faculties of Arts, Science, Law, Medicine and Engineering. The Act of 1904 (Section 14) permits the Senate to add new Faculties or to abolish or to reconstitute existing Faculties by regulation. It lays down that Fellows shall be assigned by order of the Senate to different Faculties and that those Faculties may add other than Fellows to their number (under certain restrictions), provided that those so added do not exceed half the number of Fellows assigned to that Faculty. These added members have the right to take part in the ordinary business of the Faculty and in the election of an ordinary Fellow by the Faculty, but not in elections to the Syndicate. They are themselves eligible for election by the Faculty to a Board of Studies. At the time when we began our enquiry, the Faculty of Arts comprised the Dean and 56 members; the Faculty of Science comprised the Dean, 15 members, and 5 added members; the Faculty of Law comprised the Dean and 21 members; the Faculty of Medicine comprised the Dean and 13 members; and the Faculty of Engineering comprised the Dean, 6 members, and 3 added members. The chief function of a Faculty is to consider and report on all matters referred to it by the Syndicate or by the Senate. It may also make recommendations to the Syndicate on all matters relating to the organisation of university examinations, teaching, and research in the studies or subjects with which it is concerned, and may propose regulations regarding these matters for the consideration of the Syndicate. The Senate and the Syndicate have each power to order joint meetings of Faculties to consider questions affecting more than one Faculty.

63. A series of twenty-two Boards of Studies were created not by the Act but by the regulations (Chapter V). Each Board deals with a particular branch of study and is appointed by the Faculty within whose purview this branch is included, the four Boards of experimental psychology, mathematics, geography and teaching being elected, in conformity with this general principle, by the Faculties of Arts and Science jointly. The Boards are elected annually and consist of 'teachers of, or examiners in,' or other persons who have a special knowledge of the subject or subjects with which the Board is concerned.

64. The functions of a Board of Studies, like those of a Faculty, are advisory. It is its duty to recommend courses of study, text-books and the names of persons competent to act as examiners in respect of subjects within its purview. It is required to consider reports of examiners referred to it by the Syndicate and to frame such recommendations regarding the methods of teaching, study and examination, as may seem necessary in the interests of education. It has also to consider any other matter referred to it by the Senate, Syndicate or a Faculty. The Senate and the Syndicate may order joint meetings of two or more Boards to consider matters affecting more than one Board.

65. An inspection of the composition of the existing Faculties and Boards of Studies shows that many of them cannot, at present, be regarded as expert bodies. In the case of the Faculties, the regulations provide that a member of the Senate may belong to one or two of the Faculties but that he need not necessarily belong to any. It is clear that it may be much to the interests of the University to have on the Senate a certain number of Fellows who are extremely useful in discussing questions of general policy but who are out of place on any particular expert academic body. But it has been the practice of the University to assign each Fellow to at least one Faculty, and it would probably be regarded as a slight not to do so in a particular case in spite of the terms of the regulations. Under these conditions some of the Faculties are not sufficiently homogeneous and have not therefore been very successful in discussing matters such as university curricula. Again, the Boards of Studies are, in certain cases, composed largely of persons who cannot be regarded as experts in the subject for which the Board is constituted. Not only do these Boards include many persons who are not specialists of the subjects within the purview of the Boards, but many experienced teachers do not find places on them.

V.—Supervision of the colleges.

66. An examination of the control exercised by the University over its colleges will show to what extent the work as a whole is hampered by the defects in organisation which have just been discussed. It is unnecessary at this stage to consider the conduct of the university classes, as the constitution and working of the new post-graduate authorities have been dealt with in a separate

chapter¹. We shall confine ourselves therefore to the undergraduate teaching. The control over the affiliated colleges is exercised mainly by the affiliation and disaffiliation of colleges, by inspection, by the prescription of courses and by examination.

67. The arrangements for affiliation and disaffiliation were very loosely defined under the Act of 1857. The only requirement was that, except by the special order of the Syndicate, no person should be admitted as a candidate to the degree of bachelor, master, licentiate or doctor without presenting a certificate from one of the institutions authorised in that behalf by the Governor-General in Council to the effect that he had completed the course of instruction prescribed. Nothing was laid down in the Act regarding the procedure for authorisation (or affiliation as it was afterwards called) or the means of securing that the college maintained an adequate standard.

68. The Universities Commission² of 1902 observed that there was no attempt in the Act of Incorporation to give precision to the term affiliation or to define the relation between the University and the colleges. They therefore recommended that no institution should be admitted to affiliation except on the fullest information and that no institution, once admitted, should be permitted to fall below the standard of efficiency required for affiliation. They made suggestions regarding the conditions of affiliation and proposed that affiliation should be granted not in general terms but with a more exact reference to the subjects and courses of study for which the colleges could make adequate provision. They regarded 'adequate provision' as covering not only the provision of an adequate number of lectures but also 'adequate tutorial assistance' and access to a library and laboratories where required. The object which the Commission had in view was that, before entering for a university examination, a student should have completed a regular course of study in an institution approved by the University. They deprecated rigid regulations and recommended that all rules requiring merely a percentage of attendance at lectures should be recast or abolished. They also recommended that the decisions of the Syndicate in regard to the

¹ Chapter XV.

² Report, paras. 57-60.

affiliation and disaffiliation of colleges should not be liable to revision by the Senate.

69. Sir Gooroo Dass Banerjee, however, felt that disaffiliation might affect vested interests, not only of the college concerned but also of its students, and recommended in his note of dissent that the orders of the Syndicate in regard to disaffiliation should be liable to revision by the Senate.

70. The Act of 1904 deals in great detail with the question of affiliation, and the regulations under the Act carry the matter into further detail.

71. Under the Act, Section 19, except on the recommendation of the Syndicate and by special order of the Senate, no person can be admitted as a candidate at any university examination other than matriculation, unless he produces a certificate from a college affiliated to the University showing that he has completed the course of instruction prescribed by regulation. It is therefore essential for every college, the pupils of which desire a degree, to be affiliated to the University.

72. To obtain affiliation the college applying must under the Act (Section 21) 'satisfy the Syndicate' in regard to a number of matters (which have been added to under the regulations, Chapter XIX) and which include (i) its management by a regularly constituted body ; (ii) the suitability of the qualifications of its teaching staff and the conditions of their tenure of office to ensure the due provision for the courses to be undertaken by the college ; (iii) its buildings, the regulations for the residence of students, and for their supervision and physical welfare ; (iv) the provision for a library ; (v) the equipment for the teaching of any experimental science in which affiliation is sought ; (vi) the residential arrangements for the head of the college, and of some members of the staff, in or near the college or the place provided for the residence of students ; (vii) the adequacy of the financial resources of the college for its continued maintenance.

73. Under the regulations (Chapter XIX, Section 5) the Syndicate is required to obtain from a college applying for affiliation an assurance that, except with the special permission of the Syndicate, no professor or lecturer will be allowed to lecture to a class or section of a class which has on its rolls more than 150 students. The Act further provides that it must also satisfy the Syndicate that the

affiliation of the college, having regard to the provision made for students by other colleges in the same neighbourhood, will not be injurious to the interests of education or discipline and that the college rules fixing the fees have not been so framed as to involve such competition with any existing college in the same neighbourhood as would be injurious to the interests of education. The Syndicate is required to make a local enquiry and any other enquiry that appears to them necessary and to report to the Senate who may make a further enquiry and who then record their opinions on the application. All the proceedings of the Syndicate and Senate are then submitted to the Government of India, who, after such further enquiry as may appear to them necessary, grant or refuse the application or any part thereof.

74. A college may from time to time apply for additions to the courses of instruction in which it is affiliated, the procedure followed being the same as that already described.

75. Under the terms of the Act the procedure for disaffiliation is initiated by a written motion by a member of the Syndicate accompanied by a statement in writing of the grounds on which the motion is made. The statement is then forwarded to the head of the college concerned who is given an opportunity of making a representation in writing before the matter is considered by the Syndicate ; and the motion is not considered until the representation has been made or the time allowed for its submission has expired. The procedure followed is then identical with that followed in the case of an application for affiliation, except that the Syndicate are not obliged to make an inspection unless they consider it necessary. As in the case of affiliation the final decision rests with the Government of India.

76. It must be pointed out that it is unusual in university administration to throw the disagreeable onus of initiating proceedings of this kind on a single individual, and we think it inadvisable. The responsibility for such action should rest on a committee of the Syndicate, or of such body as may be charged in future with dealing with the questions of affiliation or disaffiliation or of admitting to university privileges of this kind and of deciding that such privileges should lapse in particular cases.

77. The Universities Commission recommended that rules should be so framed that no institution, once admitted, should be allowed

to fall below the standard required for affiliation, and that the Syndicate should satisfy itself from time to time on this point. They thought that in most cases information would be procurable from the Director of Public Instruction and that it would not be necessary for the University to appoint an Inspector or Board of Inspectors but that members of the Syndicate should make it a practice to visit colleges within their jurisdiction. They suggested that such visits would serve to remind the authorities and the students of each college that they formed part of the larger world of the University, and would also furnish the Syndicate with a large body of experience which would be of great value when questions concerning the college came up for decision. They recommended that the Syndicate should have power to order the formal inspection of a college at any time.

78. The Act of 1904 went much further in this direction than the recommendations of the Commission. It provided that every college affiliated to the University should submit such report, returns and other information as the Syndicate might require to enable it to judge of its efficiency ; that the Syndicate should cause a college to be inspected from time to time by one or more competent persons authorised to act on its behalf ; and that the Syndicate might call upon a college so inspected to take, within a specified period, such action as appeared necessary to maintain its efficiency in respect of those matters with regard to which the Syndicate has to be satisfied when it deals with an affiliation in the first instance. The Regulations (Chapter VIII) provide for the appointment of an Inspector of Colleges ; and also (Chapter XX) for the inspection of each affiliated college at least once a year, such inspection to be conducted by the Inspector of Colleges and one or two other persons appointed from time to time by the Syndicate. The inspectors are instructed to deal with :—

(a) The constitution of the Governing Body and the names of its members.
(b) The suitability of the buildings and their neighbourhood, the accommodation for the students in attendance, the furniture, the lighting, the ventilation of the rooms, the drainage of the surrounding premises, and the efficiency of the sanitary arrangements.

(c) The names and qualifications of the teaching staff, the conditions governing their appointment and tenure of office, and the changes in the staff during the preceding year.

(d) The provision made for the residence of the head of the college and of the members of the teaching staff in or near the college, or the place provided for the residence of students.

(e) The adequacy of the library, scientific apparatus and other teaching appliances.

(f) The courses of study, the subjects taught, the number of lectures delivered in each subject, the routine of work, and the arrangements for exercises and for tutorial assistance, and the facilities given to students to make use of the library.

(g) The adequacy of the teaching staff.

(h) The strictness with which the college registers are kept and the transfer rules observed.

(i) The average monthly roll-number and the daily attendance of students during the last twelve months, as compared with the previous year's.

(j) The results of university examinations.

(k) The state of discipline.

(l) The provision made for physical exercise.

(m) College clubs and other institutions for fostering collegiate life.

(n) The extent and character of hostel accommodation, the degree of efficiency attained in the supervision of hostels and other lodgings for students; and the distance of such hostels and lodgings from the college premises.

79. There can be little doubt that considerable improvements have been made in the organisation of colleges since the time of the Universities Act, but this tightening up of efficiency has scarcely kept pace with the very great increase in numbers, which has exposed many of the weaknesses of the present system.

80. The regulations as they appear in the Calendar seem to us excellent. But we have reason to think that they are far less effective than might appear at first sight. We have read many inspection reports and can testify to their useful, and sometimes admirable, suggestions. It is all the more disquieting therefore to record that in the case of certain colleges the same criticism appears from year to year but that no action whatever is taken. One of the weaknesses of the previous system was pointed out by the Commission of 1902 who directed attention to the fact that cases had been brought before them of colleges which had obtained affiliation on a statement showing adequate strength in the teaching staff, but which had lost some of their best professors and filled their places with less satisfactory teachers.¹ The process goes on now as it did before 1902. But what can the Syndicate do? It can disaffiliate the college in the subject in which the weakness has arisen. Suppose affiliation is granted on the ground that there are 250 students taking a subject and there are four efficient teachers. The number of students in the subject rises to 400; neither the teaching strength

¹ Report, page 14.

nor the accommodation is increased. Is the college to be disaffiliated? Of the four efficient teachers, one is replaced by a less efficient teacher; and then a second by another less efficient teacher. Is the college to be disaffiliated? What provision is to be made so that the students (half of whom may be studying under the two efficient teachers) shall not suffer? The weapon of disaffiliation in its present form is so drastic that the University has never ventured to use it.

81. But the failure of the power of disaffiliation to secure a more satisfactory standard of all-round educational efficiency in the weaker colleges has not been due alone to the difficulty of enforcing that power without inflicting a penalty disproportionately serious in its effect upon the interests of the students and perhaps heavier than the shortcomings of the college deserve. If (in some such way as is proposed in later chapters of this report) the University had been in a position to offer or to recommend a grant-in-aid to a college towards the cost of improvements in the quality and character of its work, the Syndicate would probably have been much less indisposed to exert pressure by the threat of disaffiliation and much more successful in securing compliance with the recommendations made in its inspectors' reports.

82. Apart from this, however, the University has few means of influencing and co-ordinating the educational expenditure of the colleges. Without such influence and co-ordination there can be no adequate husbanding of existing resources for higher education and using them to their best effect. Its own funds depend too largely on examination fees. The ordinary Government maintenance grants are given to colleges without reference to the university authorities. The University has not in practice been able to ensure for the college teachers adequate salaries and reasonable security of tenure; nor has it been able in all cases to insist that all the financial resources of a college should be used for educational purposes and not for private gain.

83. Our attention has been directed to a practice which is said to press hardly on the colleges in certain cases. Difficulties are made in granting affiliation to a college in both Persian and Arabic if the same teacher has charge of the two departments even though the total number of students may be less than a dozen. Mr. Jamal of Rangoon and certain witnesses at Chittagong protested against

this practice which appears to us unreasonable, though the general principle that university teachers should not be required to deal with a multiplicity of subjects is sound on the whole. It is clear that some latitude should be allowed in dealing with subjects for which the number of students is small and with institutions, like the women's colleges, in which the whole number of students is, under existing conditions, necessarily small. The case of the women's colleges has been brought to our notice by Sister Mary Victoria, Principal of the Diocesan College, Calcutta.

VI.—Essentials of University organisation.

84. Being a corporation of learning which exists for the service of the community, a university needs for its effective governance organs of three types. In the first place, it requires a body to keep it in touch with all the varied requirements of the community. Spokesmen of the community must have the means of expressing its needs, though they may not know how far their demands are germane to university work, nor how they can be realised, nor their relative importance. Such a body should be advisory, critical and stimulating, but not in detail controlling; for in so far as it is genuinely representative of the community, it will not be, nor ought it to pretend to be, an expert body, but rather a body which makes its demands on the experts, and asks them, if the demands cannot be met, the reason why. Its primary duty, therefore, is to make known the needs of a variety of interests, and to assist the university to be, as it should, a national institution. In the second place, a university needs statesmanlike guidance in the accommodation of means to ends and also in the provision of means; and not less in mediation between the possible misconceptions of the public and the possibly too restricted outlook of the scholar. Thirdly, and above all, a university needs, just because it is a corporation of learning, the authoritative direction of a body of scholars. Here is the real heart of the university. The other elements may be, and have been, dispensed with, though not without loss; this cannot be dispensed with without sacrificing the essential character of a university.

85. The University of Calcutta under its present constitution possesses none of these three organs in a form well-adapted even to existing needs, still less in a shape capable of bearing the strain of the more exacting requirements which are certain to show them-

selves in the early future. The Senate is not sufficiently representative of the life and interest of Bengal ; the Syndicate has not the responsibilities and powers which should devolve upon the Executive Council of a great university : and the teaching body has a quite inadequate voice in the direction of academic affairs. The time has come for a reconstruction which will remedy these defects.

VII.—New departures in Indian university organisation.

86. How widespread is the feeling that great changes are needed in university organisation in India is shown by the fact that in the constitution of the three most recent universities—Benares, Mysore and Patna—there have been notable departures from the pattern of which the existing constitution of Calcutta University may be taken as the type. In all cases an attempt has been made to give to the teaching body a larger voice in the direction of academic policy.

87. The University of Mysore is very similar in its constitution to the older Indian universities, having a Senate of not less than fifty and not more than sixty members ; but it departs from existing practice by giving seats on the Senate to the university professors *ex-officio*.

88. At Patna the application of the elective principle has been extended, by increasing both the proportion of elected Fellows and the categories of electing bodies. Of the total number of ordinary Fellows (not less than 60 and not more than 75) fifty are elected, while not less than ten and not more than twenty-five may be nominated by the Chancellor. The Senate includes elected representatives not only of the graduates but of the teaching staffs of the colleges, the graduate teachers of recognised schools, and certain associations or public bodies selected by the Chancellor. Further, all colleges admitted to the University and giving teaching up to the degree standard are given statutory representation on the Senate in the persons of their principals, who are *ex-officio* Fellows. The Syndicate of the Patna University is very largely an expert body, and the principals of Patna College and of Ravenshaw College, Cuttack, are *ex-officio* members. Its orders are normally subject to revision by the Senate ; but in certain matters of academic importance it is the ultimate authority, except that any six of its members have the power to refer such matters to the Senate for review,

89. In the constitution of the Hindu University, Benares, several departures were made in the redistribution of functions. A dividing line was made between administrative matters, entrusted to a large body called the Court, with an executive committee called the Council,¹ and academic matters, entrusted primarily to a Senate, with an executive called the Syndicate. The Court which is the supreme governing body, besides its administrative powers, has the right to review the acts of the Senate, save where the Senate has acted in accordance with powers conferred on it by the Act, Statutes and Regulations ; and the Court exercises all powers of the University not otherwise provided for by the Act or Statutes. The Court consists of three classes of persons ; (1) *ex-officio* members, (2) donors and their representatives and (3) elected members. The elected members include 10 persons elected by the graduates, 30 elected by the donors, 10 elected by the Senate and 35 elected by the Court to represent special categories of experience or special communities (the Sikh and Jain) and not more than 20 elected without such limitation. The Senate of the Benares University has the "entire charge of the organisation of instruction in the University and the colleges, the courses of study, and the examination and discipline of students and the conferment of ordinary and honorary degrees." The Syndicate consists of 17 members, of whom 10 at least, other than *ex-officio* members, are university professors or principals or professors of colleges. The Syndicate exercises such powers as are vested in it by the Statutes.

¹ It should be noted, however, that the Council includes representatives of the Senate.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE RELATIONS BETWEEN GOVERNMENT AND THE UNIVERSITY.

I.—The extent of Government control.

1. A careful analysis of the relations between Government (including under this general term both the Imperial and the provincial administrations) and the whole system of education of which the University is the crown, is an essential element in our survey. For these relations are more intimate and more complex than is the case in most other countries, just because, since the very beginning of the development of western education in India, its ultimate guidance and control have been largely in the hands of Government, and the directions which its development has followed have been in a great degree due to the policy and acts of Government.

2. In the first place, the provincial universities¹ of India were all established by Government action; and they were established partly in order that they might exercise, on behalf of Government, certain functions of regulation and control over colleges and schools within their allotted areas. For that reason they have been, from the first, not independent corporations of learning, but bodies mainly nominated by Government, wielding defined powers which were delegated to them, and subject to constant supervision by Government. The chief officer of each university, the Chancellor, is in all cases the head of a Government, Imperial or local, and he exercises far larger powers than the chancellors of western universities. The great majority of the members of the supreme governing bodies, or Senates, in all the universities, have always been nominated by the Chancellor, and even those among them who are elected, under the terms of the Act of 1904, must be approved by the Chancellor. All the regulations of every univer-

¹ The term 'provincial universities' is used to distinguish the group to which Calcutta belongs (the others being Madras, Bombay, the Punjab, Allahabad, and since 1917, Patna), and which are intended to serve the needs of whole provinces, from other universities of a different type, like Benares, which have either been created or are projected.

ity are in form, and largely in fact, Government enactments. All the more important officers of the University are either (like the Vice-Chancellor) directly appointed by Government, or (like professors and lecturers) are subject to its approval.

3. In the second place, Government supplies the bulk of the funds required for the conduct of university work, other than that supplied by the fees of students for instruction and examination. Of the total non-fee revenue of the University of Calcutta, in 1916-17 Rs. 1,36,800, or 51·6 *per cent*, comes from endowments, Rs. 1,28,000, or 48·4 *per cent*, from Government grants. But of the total non-fee revenue of all the teaching institutions of university rank in Bengal other than the University itself (including professional as well as arts colleges), Rs. 1,78,639, or only 13 *per cent*, comes from endowments and other sources, no less than Rs. 11,81,956, or 87 *per cent*, from Government grants. In the main, apart from fees, the system of university education in Bengal is paid for, as well as ultimately regulated and controlled, by Government: and this is broadly true also of other provinces. If fees—both for teaching and for examination—be included, the total revenue of the University and all the colleges in Bengal, taken together, amounts to Rs. 38,06,456. Of this total the university fees account for Rs. 7,91,600, the college fees for Rs. 13,89,461. But Rs. 1,63,755 of this fee-revenue is really paid by Government, in the form of scholarships. The total contribution of the Imperial and provincial Governments to university education therefore amounts to Rs. 14,73,711, or 39 *per cent* of the whole; the total contribution from endowments and other sources to Rs. 3,15,439, or only 8·2 *per cent*; the total contribution from fees to Rs. 20,17,306, or 52·8 *per cent*. It thus appears that Government supplies between one-third and one-half of the total cost of university education in Bengal.

4. In the third place, the character and equipment of the teaching institutions which prepare students for university examinations are in the main determined by Government; not only because Government approves the conditions for the affiliation of colleges, and is the final authority for the decision of all applications for affiliation, but still more because Government, for several of the most important colleges, professional and general, defines the staff and equipment and actually provides the teachers—retaining

them under its own direct orders. It thus sets a pattern which is, in a large degree, followed by the rest; while, by means of the conditions which it attaches to its grants-in-aid, it holds also a certain control over the methods of many of the other colleges.

5. In the fourth place, Government provides subsidies for secondary education, and, through its provincial Departments of Public Instruction, supplies the only existing mechanism of inspection both for secondary and for primary education; while its local executive officers play a very important part in the local management of colleges and schools. But in the secondary sphere its activities are in many ways qualified and limited by the function of recognising and examining high schools exercised by the University; so that in this sphere there is a confusion of jurisdiction from which frictions and delays arise.

6. Lastly, not the least powerful factor in the influence exercised by Government over the university system arises from the fact that a large proportion of the students who undertake courses do so in the hope of obtaining admission to Government service, for which, even in its humbler branches, a university degree, or success in a lower university examination, is, for Indian candidates, a required qualification. In the eyes of many university students, and of the public, the university system is still largely regarded simply as the accepted mode of approach to Government service; and this has had profound effects upon the character and development of the system.

7. It is thus, in theory, an extremely close control which is exercised by Government, directly and indirectly, over the working of the university system; and we propose in this chapter to analyse carefully the mode in which this control is used, and the various criticisms which have been made upon it. Among the most fundamentally important questions with which we have to deal are the questions whether this control is too rigid, whether the purposes for which it is maintained could be better met in other ways, and, if so, what changes are desirable. But these questions can only be dealt with when the existing system has been fully explored.

8. Among the questions included in our questionnaire was one which asked for the opinions of our correspondents regarding the proper relations between the Government of India and the provin-

cial Government on the one hand, and the university or universities of a province such as Bengal on the other.¹ To our surprise, it was one of the questions which produced the least adequate response, and gave us the minimum of guidance. Only 158 of our correspondents dealt with the question at all. Most of the answers are extremely brief and perfunctory. Few show any understanding of the way in which the existing system works, and fewer still attempt to work out clearly or fully a new kind of relationship. Eighteen of the answers are so vague in their terms that it is impossible to tell whether the writers are satisfied or dissatisfied with the existing system. Three writers—all Indians—express the desire that the control of Government should be materially strengthened. Thirty-seven are, in general, content with the degree and character of the control now exercised by Government, though many of them desire to see most of the powers of the Imperial Government transferred to the provincial Government. Ninety-nine advocate a diminution of Government control, and an increase of university autonomy; but there is considerable variation among these writers as to the extent and character of the changes which they would desire. With few exceptions, however, our correspondents admit the necessity of some Government supervision over university policy. Those who wish to make the universities entirely autonomous are in a small minority.

II.—The Government of India and the Government of Bengal.

9. We have hitherto spoken of 'Government' in general terms, without differentiating between the functions exercised by the Imperial Government and those exercised by the provincial Government. But the distinction is of the greatest importance, especially in Calcutta; for the most marked difference between the University of Calcutta and the other Indian universities of the affiliating type is that in regard to the University the Viceroy and the Government of India perform functions which in all other cases are performed by the Governor (or Lieutenant-Governor) and the provincial Government.

10. In the original Acts by which the Indian universities were established, and in the Universities Act of 1904 by which the action of Government in regard to universities is now mainly

¹ Question 14.

determined, certain functions (such as the nominations of members of the Senate) are attributed to the 'Chancellor', certain other functions (such as the approval of regulations and the final decision as to the affiliation and disaffiliation of colleges) are attributed to the 'Government.' In all the five original universities except Calcutta the 'Chancellor' is the Governor (or Lieutenant-Governor) of the province in which the university is situated, the 'Government' is the provincial Government. In Calcutta the 'Chancellor' is the Governor-General of India, and the 'Government' is the Government of India.

11. With the affairs of Calcutta University the Government of Bengal has, as such, nothing to do. The Governor of Bengal holds the office of Rector of the University, but he has no defined functions,¹ save that of being the medium of communication between the University and the Government of India : he may, if he thinks fit, offer his opinions upon the recommendations which he forwards. On the other hand, it is the Government of Bengal which controls Government colleges, aids and inspects secondary schools, and provides the University with materials for deciding upon the applications of schools for recognition. In other provinces these functions are combined with the exercise of control over the University.

12. One justification for Government control over the working of a university is the fact that (under Indian conditions) the action of the University directly and immediately affects the other grades of education, especially the secondary grade. Another is the desirability of considering the provision of training for university degrees, and therefore the organisation and equipment of the colleges, in conjunction with the schemes of study on which these degrees are granted. In Bengal these justifications have not the same force ; because the Government which controls the University is different from the Government which defines the policy of the State in regard to secondary education, and which provides some, and aids others, of the colleges which give training for university degrees. Assuming that the existing system of close Government control is necessary, this division of responsibility and power between two authorities 1,000 miles apart seems illogical, likely

¹ Clause 18 of the Act of 1904 empowers the Chancellor to delegate any of his functions to the Rector, but no such delegation has ever been made.

to lead to confusion and delay, and apt to make the exercise of the control ineffective.

"It seems to me that there is a general principle involved", said Mr. J. G. Cumming, when this question was discussed in the Imperial Legislative Council on 22nd March 1916; "and that principle is a well-known one in administration. Where there is responsibility, there should be authority; and in fact power or authority cannot be divorced from responsibility without serious consequences. . . . Since the Government of India have moved from their former headquarters in Calcutta, the position of the Government of Bengal is such that it has a responsibility of which it cannot divest itself."

13. The special relation of the Government of India to the University of Calcutta is due to the fact that the jurisdiction of the University of Calcutta originally extended over the whole of India except the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay; and to the further fact that, until 1911, Calcutta was the seat of the Imperial Government. But the creation of new provincial universities,¹ followed by the removal of the seat of Imperial Government to Delhi, changed these conditions. The University of Calcutta had now become, in the main, a provincial and local, rather than a general Imperial, university. At the same time the Governor-General and his officers had ceased to possess that intimate contact with the conditions of Bengal which was necessary to enable them to use to the best advantage the power of selecting men to fill university offices, or to judge as to the needs and conditions of a college applying for affiliation. This drawback was clearly recognised by His Excellency the Viceroy, in his convocation address at Calcutta in January 1917. "Since I assumed office," he said, "I have been very conscious of the grave inconvenience of the distance which separates the University from its Chancellor and the Government of India. It is impossible for us to have that close and intimate knowledge of your affairs which only residence on the spot can give."

14. Another unfortunate consequence follows. If it be admitted—and it is often urged—that the main reason for the presence of official members upon the governing bodies of the University is that they may represent and expound the educational policy of Government, it would seem to be necessary that the official members should

¹ The Punjab in 1882, Allahabad in 1887, Patna in 1917. Benares is, of course, not a provincial university.

represent the Government which frames the policy that has to be expounded, and should share in the responsibility for its execution. But the Government responsible for university policy in Calcutta, though not for other branches of educational policy in Bengal, is the Government of India; and its educational officers cannot be expected to travel 1,000 miles and back even once a month in order to take part in meetings of the Calcutta University. The effective official members of the Syndicate and Senate are, in fact, officers of the Government of Bengal, who may have no adequate knowledge of the policy they are called upon to explain. This especially applies to the Director of Public Instruction, who, though he is purely a provincial officer, is always a member of the University Syndicate, and must be regarded as the spokesman of the Government point of view. This state of things must inevitably tend to reduce to ineffectiveness the system of Government control.

15. In actual fact, of course, it is impossible that the Education Department of the Government of India should disregard, or fail to consult, the provincial Government on questions so nearly affecting its policy—questions on which, moreover, it alone can often supply the information necessary for a wise decision. But the discussion of details by correspondence at a distance of 1,000 miles cannot possibly be satisfactory. At the worst it may lead to misunderstandings; at the best it must often cause exasperating delays¹ in the settlement of questions which could quite easily be decided immediately.

16. These considerations have led to a demand that the Government of India should transfer to the Government of Bengal its functions in relation to the University of Calcutta. The most important discussion on this question took place in the Imperial Legislative Council on 22nd March 1916, when Mr. Surendranath Banerjea moved:—

“That this Council recommends to the Governor-General in Council to consider the advisability of placing the University of Calcutta on the same footing with the Universities of Madras and Bombay in respect of the relations between the Calcutta University and the head of the local Government for purposes of administration and control.”

¹ See the memorandum of the Engineering College, Sibpur, General Memoranda, page 27. It is discussed below, paras. 55 and 56.

The resolution, though widely supported, was opposed by representatives from Burma and Assam, on the ground that the University of Calcutta exercises jurisdiction over the colleges in these provinces, and therefore should not be placed under the exclusive control of the Bengal Government. To this it was answered that the Central Provinces in like manner fall under the jurisdiction of the University of Allahabad, which is controlled by the Government of the United Provinces; and it was also pointed out that while Burma and Assam possess only two colleges apiece, there are no less than 41 colleges in Bengal for which the Government of Bengal is directly or indirectly responsible. Sir Sankaran Nair, speaking on behalf of Government, accepted the resolution, thus suggesting the ultimate approval by the Imperial Government of the change, as eventually desirable; but added that it should be delayed until the proposed Universities of Patna and of Rangoon should be established.

17. Many of our correspondents have also discussed this question. A number of them favour the change. Those who oppose it do so on the grounds that the relation with the Government of India gives prestige to the University, and affords it a chance of getting a larger share of the Imperial funds available for university purposes than it might otherwise secure. But these correspondents scarcely appreciate the difficulties of the existing arrangement; which will become clearer when we have analysed, in further detail, the organisation and functions of the Education Departments of the two Governments.

III.—The educational organisation of the Government of India.

18. Until 1902 there was no special organisation in the Government of India for dealing with education, which was held to be mainly the function of the provincial departments of public instruction set up in 1855. Such general supervision as was attempted—it amounted to very little—fell within the sphere of the Home Department, where it was carried on by officers who had no direct contact with educational work. In 1902, as a result of an educational conference held at Simla in the previous year, Lord Curzon instituted a new office, the holder of which was known as the Director-General of Education. This change was at first regarded,

as Lord Curzon himself recognised,¹ with a good deal of trepidation, as indicating a desire on the part of Government to centralise education. The alarm was misplaced. The name of the Director-General was a misleading one, since the new officer had no executive powers, but was only an adviser to Government, a sort of intelligence officer. Educational matters were still dealt with by the Home Department, and it was the Home Department, in conjunction with the Legislative Department, which was responsible for the Universities Act of 1904. Nevertheless Mr. (now Sir) H. W. Orange, the first (and only) Director-General of Education, though hampered by the denial of all effective power, was able to do useful work, which showed that the Government of India might render services of the highest value by keeping the educational work of the various provinces in touch with one another, and providing expert guidance.

19. After the Act of 1904 the Government of India began to play a much more important part than it had hitherto done in educational affairs, and to make substantial grants of money both directly to the universities and also to the provincial Governments for new educational developments. The consequence was that a more distinct organisation of educational work became necessary, and in 1910 a special Department of Education was established, with an office of its own and a Member to represent it in the Executive Council of the Government. The sphere of the new department included, and still includes, a good deal more than education. It deals also with medical research funds, with patronage of books, with books and publications, with copyright, with the Imperial Library, with museums, with zoological gardens, with record offices, with archæology and ethnography, with the zoological and linguistic surveys; and it controls the Board of Examiners.² These are all subjects akin to education. But besides these, ecclesiastical affairs, sanitation, municipalities and local boards all fall within the purview of this miscellaneous department.

20. At first the new department was divided (under the Education Member, Sir Harcourt Butler) into two main sections with

¹ *Lord Curzon in India, 1898-1905*, (Macmillan and Co., Ltd., London, 1906), Volume II, page 55.

² This Board, founded in 1806, conducts language examinations for civil and military officers of Government.

two secretaries, a member of the Indian Civil Service (Mr. H. Sharp) being in charge of education, and the various branches were placed under a member of the Indian Civil Service. But in 1915 the Department was reorganised. Its whole business was put under the control of a single secretary, who must be a member of the Indian Civil Service, so that the office chief of the Education Department must practically always be a man who has had no direct educational experience. Under the secretary are two assistant secretaries, one of whom deals with educational affairs, the other with the remaining functions of the Department.

21. At the same time a Bureau of Education was established, and placed under the charge of an officer styled the Educational Commissioner (Mr. Sharp). The Educational Commissioner is not an executive officer of the Department. But he is kept in touch with all its proceedings; he gives advice; and he collects and correlates information in regard to the progress of education both in India and elsewhere. We desire to express our gratitude for the assistance which has been in many ways afforded to us by the Educational Commissioner and the Bureau of Education, and our high sense of the importance and value of the services which they already render to Indian education, and can render yet more fully in the future.

22. The educational functions of the Government of India, acting through the Department of Education, are of two kinds. In the first place, it exercises certain functions of general supervision and control over the educational work of the provincial Governments. In the second place, it has certain limited functions of a directly executive character, of which the most important is the control of the University of Calcutta.

23. Among its more general functions perhaps the most important is that it advises the Secretary of State, and forms the channel of communication between him and the provincial Governments. It has to see to the enforcement of the rather complicated regulations by which the Educational Services are controlled; of these we shall have something to say later. It advises Government in regard to the distribution of Imperial subsidies for education. These have been, in recent years, on a much more generous scale than ever before; and the mere fact that it now supplies so large a proportion of the available funds, gives to the

function of moulding the general educational policy of India, in conjunction with its necessary complement, the collection and arrangement of organised information, which is the work of the Bureau of Education, is the most valuable part of the Department's activities.

24. The importance of the exercise of a co-ordinating influence over the general educational policy of India was emphasised by Lord Curzon as long ago as 1901, when, addressing the Educational Conference at Simla (which was the beginning of many new departures), he spoke as follows¹ :—

“Is there an educational policy of the Government of India at all? If so, is it observed, and what is the machinery by which it is carried out? Is there any due supervision of this vast and potent engine of creative energy, or, after its furnace has been fed, are the wheels left to go round, and the piston rod to beat, without control? I cannot answer these questions as I should wish. There seems to me to be a misdirection, and, in some cases, a waste of force, for which I cannot hold the Government free from blame. I observe a conflict of systems which finds no justification in the administrative severance, or in the local conditions, of separate provinces and areas. In the praiseworthy desire to escape centralisation at headquarters, we appear to have set up a number of petty kingdoms, a sort of Heptarchy, in the land, whose administration, in its freedom and lack of uniformity, reminds me of the days of the Hebrew judges, when there was no king in Israel, but every man did that which was right in his own eyes. Elasticity, flexibility, variety, our system must have. But it will lose half its force if they are not inspired by a common principle and directed to a common aim. ... I hold the education of the Indian people to be as much a duty of the Central Government as the police of our cities, or the taxation of our citizens. Indeed more so, for whereas these duties can be safely delegated to subordinate hands, the Government can never abrogate its personal responsibility for the living welfare of the multitudes that have been committed to its care.”

25. The policy indicated by Lord Curzon, at a moment when education in India was receiving from him a new impulse, was that while the actual conduct of educational affairs ought to be in the hands of the provincial Governments, and while there ought to be the utmost freedom and variety in the adaptation of educational policy to the varying needs of different parts of the country, the Government of India, without interfering in details, should exercise a general co-ordinating influence. It has endea-

¹ *Lord Curzon in India, 1898-1905*, (Macmillan and Co., Ltd., London, 1906), Volume II, pages 33-34.

voured to do so, partly by collecting and disseminating information, and by giving advice and financial assistance to local Governments and universities, partly by holding a series of conferences of representatives of all the provinces on various matters of special interest, and partly by issuing from time to time full and carefully considered resolutions on educational policy, in which general principles have been laid down for the guidance of the local Governments.

26. The governing ideas of this policy are illustrated in one of the most important of these resolutions, that of 1913. Thus, in the second paragraph of the resolution we read :—

“ The Government of India have decided, with the approval of the Secretary of State, to assist local Governments by means of large grants from Imperial revenues, as funds become available, to extend comprehensive systems of education in the several provinces. Each province has its own educational system, which has grown up under local conditions, and become familiar to the people as a part of their general well-being. In view of the diverse social conditions in India there cannot in practice be one set of regulations and one rate of progress for the whole of India. Even within the provinces, there is scope for greater variety in type of institutions than exists to-day. The Government of India have no desire to centralise provincial systems, or to attempt to introduce a superficial uniformity ; still less do they desire to deprive local Governments of interest and initiative in education. But it is important at intervals to review educational policy in India as a whole. Principles bearing on education in its wider aspects and under modern conditions and conceptions, on *orientalia*, and on the special needs of the domiciled community, were discussed at three important conferences of experts and representative non-officials, held within the last two years. These principles are the basis of accepted policy. How far they can at any time find local application must be determined with reference to local conditions. ”

In a later paragraph of the resolution (61), the need of co-ordination is thus emphasised :—

“ While each province has its own system, it has much to learn from other provinces, and when they meet, Directors get into touch with new ideas, and gain the benefit of experience obtained in other provinces. The Government of India are impressed by the necessity not only of exchange of views among experts, but also by the advantages of studying experiments all over India on the spot ; and in a letter dated 7th July 1911, they invited local Governments to arrange that professors ... and inspectors of schools should visit institutions outside the province where they are posted, with a view to enlarging their experience. ”

27. It must be obvious that the Government of India can perform an invaluable function by thus defining the general aims of educational policy, by giving advice and assistance to local Governments and to universities, by acting as an impartial arbiter in cases

of dispute, by protecting disregarded interests, by supplying organised information as to the development of educational ideas in the various provinces, and also elsewhere than in India, by helping to obtain the service of scholars from other countries, by co-ordinating the work of various universities, and by guarding against needless duplication and overlapping in the provision of the more costly forms of education.

28. Our correspondents¹ adduce many different arguments in favour of the view that while the direct intervention of the Imperial Government should be reduced to a minimum, these functions of general supervision and guidance are of great value and should still be retained. Thus Dr. Wali Mohammad² observes that "No one, except in the Education Bureau of the Government of India, ...is engaged in inquiring into the objects of education and determining the means of obtaining them." Mr. W. C. Wordsworth³ urges that while the provincial Government should exercise immediate control, "the Government of India should remain in the background with a reserved power of intervention if university policy followed a direction not in accord with the interests of India as a whole"; and he suggests that the head of the Education Department should have an *ex-officio* position in every university, in order that he might be kept in touch with their work. Mr. Gauranganath Banerjee,³ again, while protesting against undue Government intervention in university affairs, points out that the Government—

"alone possesses the power and disinterestedness to bring co-ordination and unity between independent and sometimes antagonistic interests, to see that...the general interests of...the entire nation are adequately secured. Nor is it a sufficient reply to urge that the universities...should be left to work out their own salvation. Even if there were no obvious anomalies, or challengeable methods, or unwise isolation, or wasteful overlapping, the Government of India should have a supervising and controlling power over the actions of the universities. No institution, however glorious, should remain without the stimulus from time to time arising from impartial enquiry, criticism and suggestion by the supervising body. These latter are especially urgent now, when we are seeking after a scientifically related system of national education."

Mr. F. W. Südmersen² raises other important points:—

"It is essential," he says, "that the way be not barred to an easy passage from one university to another, and the whole of India should be similarly

¹ Question 14 *passim*.

² General Memoranda, page 407.

³ Question 14.

over a large area of Eastern Bengal and it would not be in a position to set up machinery for the conduct of examinations in a large number of places in the first years of existence. But we feel so strongly that the recognition and inspection of schools is not a matter for universities alone to deal with, that we are unable to accept the suggestion that the Dacca University should, even during the transitional period, inspect and recognise the schools in the town of Dacca, many of whose students may wish to go to the University of Calcutta. We prefer that the *status quo* should be maintained during the transitional period. It is impossible, as Mr. Sharp points out, to demarcate portions of the Presidency as watertight compartments in respect of the standard of instruction in secondary schools or qualifications for admission to a university.¹

209. We hope that the transitional period will be short. During that period, if the University of Dacca sets up its own entrance test, it will be open to it to rely solely on that test, or to accept in combination with that test a certificate of attendance from a school recognised by the University of Calcutta.

210. As soon as the intermediate teaching is split off from the University and the entrance standard raised to the standard of the intermediate examination, the Dacca University will be relieved of the difficulties in question and will only have to consider under what conditions it will accept the passing of the examination at the end of the intermediate course as its entrance qualification.

IX.—*Transitional arrangements.*

211. *Intermediate teaching.*—We are of opinion that adequate and separate accommodation for intermediate classes should be provided immediately upon the initiation of the Dacca University, although this should not preclude special classes for intermediate students being held in the university buildings and laboratories as a temporary arrangement. We have dealt with the question of the examination of such students in the foregoing section.

212. We regard it as a necessary part of the scheme that a special intermediate college should be provided for Muslim students to take the place of the intermediate classes of the Muslim

¹ Question 4.

college originally proposed; and suitable hostel accommodation should form an important feature of such a college.

213. We think that it would be seriously prejudicial to the development of the Dacca University on right lines if the obligation of teaching intermediate students were imposed on the ordinary staff of university teachers. The present position of affairs makes it specially easy for Government to deal with this matter, as the only college on the university site, Dacca College, is a Government institution and provision might be made forthwith for the transfer of the intermediate students from Dacca College to an intermediate college. But we think it advisable to limit our recommendations to the broad proposals made above, leaving it to Government to work out the details of the intermediate college scheme. The establishment of the colleges will no doubt necessitate the transfer of a certain number of teachers from Dacca College to the intermediate colleges. We have indicated elsewhere our opinion of the important and new functions which these colleges will fulfil and of the great educational opportunities which they will offer to their staffs. We have specially referred in paragraphs 100 and 108 above to the necessity for making or continuing provision for the intermediate education of students who have passed the final examination of the senior madrasahs.

214. *Admission to the University.*—The question of admission to the University has been dealt with in paragraphs 207-210 above.

215. *Privileges of students at present reading for Calcutta degrees.*—Provision should be made either in the Dacca University Act or in the Calcutta University Act for allowing all students of the Dacca College and, if necessary, of the Jagannath College, to complete their courses for Calcutta University degrees without being liable to any disability through changes made by these Acts. This will entail some temporary inconvenience on the Dacca University, as it will be obliged for some time to provide courses in accordance with the Calcutta curriculum. We think, however, that the period during which the provision of such courses is imposed on the Dacca University should be reduced to a minimum by exempting Dacca students who have presented themselves for the Calcutta examinations, and have failed, from the requirement to attend any further courses before re-presenting themselves again for the Calcutta examinations. We do not consider that the University of Calcutta would suffer materially by an exemption of this kind,

affecting a comparatively small number of students ; and we think that the students themselves who wish to attend further courses would probably find in the University of Dacca courses that would meet at any rate the greater part of their needs. A student who has already attended a two years' university course in a given subject ought not to feel it any hardship if he is required to study such a portion of the curriculum as a new set-book by himself. In the last resort it would always be possible for such students, if they so desired, to seek accommodation in university centres other than Dacca.

216. *First appointments to the teaching staff.*¹—The method of appointment of teachers which we advocate implies the pre-existence of academic bodies in which the teachers themselves will play a considerable part ; it is therefore not applicable to the first appointments. We recommend that these should be made by the Government of Bengal acting on the joint advice of the first Vice-Chancellor (who would be appointed by the Government of India)² and of the Director of Public Instruction. They will naturally review the teaching resources available in Dacca and elsewhere in Bengal. But we think the Vice-Chancellor would be well advised at an early stage to visit the other Indian universities and their principal colleges so as to get a knowledge of the personnel available in India for staffing the new University. This would be especially necessary for the purpose of selecting Muslim teachers, of whom there are comparatively few in Bengal. The Government would no doubt, in so far as it was necessary, lend or transfer to the University the existing members of the educational services selected for appointment ; and we think such members of those services should, on transference to the service of the University, have the option of being transferred either on loan or permanently.³

The special importance of making good appointments in the first instance will be obvious ; the abler the staff first selected, the easier it will be to secure other able teachers to join them. We suggest that the major appointments, those of heads or acting heads of departments, should, as a rule, first be made ; and that the teachers so appointed should be consulted, as far as possible, before the

¹ Paras. 52-59 and Sections III and IV above.

² Paras. 171-174 above.

³ Compare Chapter XXXIV, paras. 163-164,

junior appointments are made in their respective departments. In order to carry on the work now undertaken by the Dacca College and the Jagannath College a certain number of temporary appointments may be necessary. But we think it should be possible within a few months after the appointment of the Vice-Chancellor to constitute a teaching-staff for the University in all the Faculties to be established in the first instance. While it may be necessary to make some appointments in England in the mode suggested in paragraph 59 above, this should not be allowed to delay the constitution of the university bodies.

217. *Constitution of the first university bodies.*—The first constitution of the University of Dacca will not, in view of its comparative simplicity, require the setting up of an Executive Commission of the kind which has been recommended in the case of Calcutta.¹ The whole of the university bodies, Court, Executive Council, Academic Council, Faculties, and Boards of Studies, can be constituted shortly after the nucleus of the teaching staff has been appointed by the Government of Bengal. It will probably be necessary, however, to provide in the University Act that the statutes relating to the appointment and powers of the Vice-Chancellor and of his administrative staff shall come into operation as from the commencement of the Act, and the rest of the statutes as from an appointed day, to be fixed by the Government of Bengal, after consultation with the Vice-Chancellor. The first business of the new bodies will be to draft ordinances prescribing the courses and curriculum for the future. We have explained above that, in view of the fact that the course for the Department of Islamic Studies is part of a larger scheme settled after long discussion, it must be adhered to in its main lines in the first instance, any change being a matter of development; but in general we think the courses should not be prescribed beforehand for the new University. We differ from the Dacca University Committee on this point; but we hold that the university teachers first appointed should take the primary responsibility in framing their own courses, though we have no doubt that they will give due consideration to the detailed recommendations of the Committee in regard to these matters. As we have shown in paragraph 215 above, it will be necessary during a transitional period for the Dacca University to provide teaching

¹ Chapter XXXVII, paras. 43, and 91-95.

in accordance with the Calcutta syllabuses, and it may be necessary to set up provisional ordinances for this period. But these are questions for the University itself to settle.

X.—Limits of University jurisdiction. Relations of Dacca with other universities. Dacca Educational Joint Committee.

218. We have dealt in a separate chapter with the question of university jurisdiction over schools and have suggested that a university is not a proper body to exercise such jurisdiction alone. We recommend that Dacca University (as well as, of course, the University of Calcutta) should receive adequate representation on the Secondary and Intermediate Board in Bengal of which we propose the creation and to which the jurisdiction over secondary education and intermediate colleges should be transferred.¹

219. The Dacca University Committee reported that they were instructed that the University of Dacca should be a "self-contained organism unconnected with any colleges outside the limits of the city."² While in agreement with the general principle that the University of Dacca should not be connected with distant colleges, we think that the city limits proposed are rather too narrow, especially as the Government Agricultural Farm, which is outside these limits might, as we have suggested, be associated in future with a university agricultural college; and as a technical college in connexion with the University might also possibly be established with advantage at some future time at Narainganj. In a draft Bill which has been submitted to us the University is limited to a circle with a radius of twelve miles from the Council House of the University, which would include Narainganj. We certainly do not think the university area should be extended beyond the radius of five miles from the Council House, except for the purpose of including a technical college such as the proposed agricultural college or a technical college of another character at Narainganj. On the other hand there is no reason why non-resident students should not come daily from a further distance to attend the university classes if there is a convenient means of transit.

220. The limitation of the University of Dacca to a given area does not in itself imply that it should have exclusive privileges

¹ Chapters XXXI and XXXII.

² Dacca Report, page 13.

within that area. The section of the draft Act to which we have referred above would, however, confer such exclusive privileges ; it is modelled on Section 11 of the Patna University Act, which reads as follows :—

“Notwithstanding anything in any other law for the time being in force, no University in British India other than the Patna University shall, after the commencement of this Act, admit any educational institution in the province of Bihar and Orissa to any privileges whatever, and any such privileges granted by any such other University to any educational institution in that province prior to the commencement of this Act, shall be deemed to be withdrawn on the commencement of this Act.”

A clause of this kind, if made applicable to the Dacca area, would, in our opinion, go too far, for it would exclude many possibilities of fruitful co-operation between the University of Dacca and other universities.

221. We think it highly desirable that various Indian universities should co-operate and permit of the migration of students under strictly defined conditions from one university to the other. Thus it might be advisable that the University of Calcutta and the University of Dacca should co-operate in respect of departments such as Oriental studies, law or medicine or agriculture, to quote only a few examples. No doubt migration would ordinarily be rare in the case of undergraduate students ; but it should be encouraged in the case of post-graduate work. There is no reason why a student who has taken a first degree in the University of Dacca should not be permitted to go for post-graduate work, and especially work involving original investigation, to be pursued under the direction of a distinguished professor say of Calcutta, Patna or Bombay. Conversely, there is no reason why a student who has taken a first degree at another Indian university should not pursue his higher studies under the direction of the distinguished professors for whom we hope Dacca will provide a home. We think the parochial view of university activities is to be deprecated.

On the other hand, the object of the clause proposed for Dacca and of the corresponding clause in the Patna Act is plain ; there would clearly be many possibilities of difficulty if a college of an affiliating university were allowed to enter into direct and independent relations with another university. But all such difficulties would be obviated by providing that no arrangements should be made between institutions affiliated to different universities except

with the sanction of the university authorities and in accordance with general conditions prescribed by statutes, requiring the sanction of the local Governments.¹

222. We think again that the use of statutes should be sufficient to protect the new University of Dacca from any unfair competition in the area to which its activities are limited. It should be provided in the legislation regulating university institutions in Bengal that no university privileges should be conferred by any university for the first time on any institution otherwise than by a university statute, such statute being an instrument requiring the consideration and consent of the local Government in order to be valid. The local Government would not, we may feel sure, sanction the conferment of university privileges on any institution within the Dacca area and not connected with the Dacca University, without very good reason. But we think it not inconceivable that in an important centre like Dacca, and in course of time, such good reason might arise, and that some specialised technical institution of university rank, not connected with Dacca University, might be established within the Dacca area without any risk of injury to the University of Dacca. We are of opinion therefore that the terms of the University of Dacca Act ought not definitely to preclude the creation of such an institution.

223. While we think that the Dacca University should be protected especially in its early days from undue competition, we cannot go so far as Mr. Archbold, formerly Principal of Dacca College and now Principal of Muir College, Allahabad, who suggested that the jurisdiction of Dacca should be extended over a given area, for a limited period, say ten years, in the sense that students within that area should be admitted only to the University of Dacca and not to university institutions outside that area. We should regard the scheme for the University of Dacca as a failure if the University is not made strong enough from the first to dispense with such protection. We think that it would be disadvantageous both for the University, and for individual students in the Dacca area whose university studies could be more fitly pursued elsewhere. We sincerely hope that Dacca, like Calcutta, will attract students from the whole of Bengal, and even from other provinces. It is a part of the liberal education which a successful university affords

¹ Chapter XXIX.

to its students that it enables them to mix with many others who vary in training, origin and experience.

224. *Dacca Educational Joint Committee*.—We think that it would probably be useful for the co-ordination of the educational activities in the Dacca district if an informal Joint Committee were set up, including representatives of the University, the intermediate colleges, the high English schools and the Dacca Madrassah. Such a committee has been found of use elsewhere. Its functions should be informal, and it should only meet as occasion required. It would be helpful in organising public lectures, and educational conferences on matters concerning the district, and in settling any conflicts of interest or jurisdiction that might arise between the different institutions concerned. We think such a committee might consist of (say) 12 persons, of whom the University would nominate about half; and that the Vice-Chancellor should act as chairman.

XI.—*Land, buildings, etc.*

225. *Land, buildings, etc.*—We recommend that the Government should transfer to the authorities of the Dacca University by the Act creating the University such lands and buildings as it may think necessary for the inauguration and immediate and adequate development of the work of the University, further transfers of lands and buildings to be made thereafter as occasion required. If Government think it inadvisable to transfer such real property to the University they might continue to hold it or transfer it to a body of trustees appointed by them.

226. An experienced officer should be attached on loan to the University, at any rate during the initial period of transition and reconstruction, in order to help and advise the University with regard to estate management, maintenance of the establishment, and such structural changes as may be required. We entertain the hope that the Government will instruct its architect and, if necessary, the staff of the Public Works Department to assist the university authorities, so far as this may be found necessary, provided that the university authorities should later have discretion to establish their own works department and to put out contracts for structural works and repairs out of the funds at their disposal. We are disposed to think that a works department would be advantageous at any rate for dealing with the minor

repairs and construction which are always required in the case of a large estate and buildings of the kind which the University will occupy. It will of course be necessary to include in the university grant a sufficient amount to provide for the upkeep of the buildings and the estate.

227. The Dacca University Committee pointed out that, according to their scheme, the University would be practically self-contained in so far as ordinary municipal services (except water supply) are concerned and recommended that an arrangement should be made whereby the University would be excluded from the municipal administration of Dacca and permitted to manage its own internal affairs at its own expense. We have not examined this matter in detail, as it is one of local finance rather than of academic administration. We see no objection to the proposal if it is regarded as feasible and convenient.¹ We have not gone into the question of sewage or lighting. But we understand that since the Dacca Committee framed their report, Government have entered into a contract for the provision of lighting on the Ramna by a private firm ; and this fact will have to be taken into account in revising the estimates both for capital and recurrent expenditure.

228. *Allocation of existing buildings on the Ramna.*—We have seen various proposals regarding the distribution of the present buildings and the erection of new buildings on the Ramna for various university purposes but we do not feel that it would be profitable for us to criticise these proposals in detail at the present juncture.² As we have pointed out in paragraphs 30-35, 95 and 137 above our general policy is to provide centralised accommodation for the bulk of the teaching, although a large room and rooms for tutorial work must be provided in each of the halls. Our inquiries in regard to this matter at Dacca were mainly intended to ascertain whether the buildings on the Ramna site were sufficient to enable the university work to be started immediately ; we are satisfied on this head ; and we recommend that the distribution of the buildings for various purposes should be entrusted to the Vice-Chancellor and the Executive Council of

¹ Dacca Report, pages 150-151.

² Mr. T. T. Williams in his answer to Question 4, section (vi), has made some interesting and valuable suggestions on this subject, and on the location of the playing-fields.

the University. We limit our more detailed expression of opinion in regard to buildings to the following points :—

- (1) Accommodation should be provided at the earliest possible date for a physics laboratory, leaving the chemical laboratory free to occupy the whole of the building now assigned to physics and chemistry jointly. The present Engineering School might be utilised for physics, though the buildings would need some alteration and expansion for this purpose. If this suggestion is adopted, a large lecture theatre, available for the largest classes of both the physics and the chemistry departments and for public lectures should be erected on land between the two departments.
- (2) Provision should be made for a zoological, a botanical and, if possible, a physiological laboratory. The plinth designed for a physics laboratory might be utilised for these buildings.
- (3) The Government House building is unsuitable for the residence of the Vice-Chancellor, as it would involve an excessive expenditure for its upkeep. The front portion might perhaps be best used for the university library, certain rooms being also used as 'seminar' rooms;¹ and the back portion for offices.
- (4) The Dacca College might be utilised for arts lectures. The upper portions of the wings might be completed and the building could be extended as necessity therefor arises.
- (5) The two wings of the Old Secretariat might be used for the teaching of Islamic studies, and law, respectively. The central portion of the Secretariat (now a Muslim hostel) should form part of the Muslim Hall. Two more blocks could be built for this Hall immediately behind the Secretariat and in close proximity to the present Muslim dining hall.
- (6) The Jagannath Hall will require new buildings. The buildings originally designed for a stable might perhaps be converted without great expense into one of the 'houses' of this Hall, or into a hostel for law students.²

¹ Para. 97 above.

² See also (7) below.

- (7) We have pointed out in paragraph 144 above, that a fourth hall may be needed at the inception of the University. We suggest as a plan for this hall the plan of the Minto Circle at Aligarh College¹ though the buildings should be less expensive and might be constructed on the same lines as those of the Rangpur hostels. If the Jagannath Hall is built without utilising the stables, it might also be constructed in the same way.
- (8) As suggested in paragraph 132 above, the Training College and the demonstration school attached to it should be built on the Ramna site.
- (9) A number of bungalows will be required for the senior staff, and of family houses with full Indian comforts for Indian members of the staff. We lay great stress on the provision of residential accommodation for the staff, close to the halls to which they will be attached. We regard such provision as a necessary feature in the organisation of a residential university.
- (10) A university union building, and accommodation for a professors' club, should be provided at the inception of the University.²
- (11) We have expressed the view that new buildings should be provided for the engineering school and made certain suggestions on this point.³
- (12) We find it impossible to submit estimates of the expenditure required for buildings on the Ramna. Full estimates were submitted by the Dacca Committee for the buildings which they proposed; but these will need revision in view of the increased cost of construction. We think the Dacca Committee's estimates provided for buildings of a somewhat more elaborate character in some respects than are necessary.

XII.—Finance.

229. Our new proposals affect finance mainly in two ways, (1) by the limitation of the University to post-intermediate teaching ;

¹ See para. 137 above, footnote 2.

² Para. 205 above.

³ Para. 125 above.

(2) by the substitution throughout of a university organisation of teaching for the mixed university and college organisation proposed by the Dacca University Committee. It will be only right that the initial cost of the intermediate colleges and of the necessary hostels connected with them at Dacca should be partly paid for out of the capital fund originally allotted to the Dacca University scheme, of which the intermediate teaching formed an integral part. But we have proposed that the intermediate teaching throughout Bengal should be placed on a new and more efficient basis, involving additional cost; and it would perhaps be fair that a portion, at any rate, of the increased capital charges incurred at Dacca for this teaching should be derived from the sums to be granted for intermediate colleges throughout Bengal as a whole. The substitution of university teaching for college teaching mainly affects the arts side; in respect of salaries the change will be more likely to increase the efficiency rather than to diminish the cost, as the Dacca University Committee proposed that the teaching even for the B.A. pass, though collegiate, should be organised on an inter-collegiate basis, no doubt with a view to avoid unnecessary duplication of higher posts. But in respect of capital expenditure for class rooms, libraries and equipment, and recurrent expenditure for their maintenance there should be a real saving. A university organisation of class-rooms and libraries should be more economical than the organisation of a number of colleges as separate teaching institutions.

The chief item for which we have proposed an increase in expenditure is the library.¹ We consider the maintenance of an adequate university library kept up-to-date as essential to a first class university. On the other hand there should be some saving on the separate libraries for the colleges, though we think that any undue economy in this direction would be a mistake.

We do not submit any estimate of capital expenditure for buildings and general equipment for reasons indicated in the preceding section. But we think a capital grant of not less than a lakh should be made for the library to place it on a suitable basis for a university, apart from the recurring grants. The establishment of new departments renders such expenditure indispensable although we do not suggest that the money should be expended.

¹ Para. 85 above.

in a single session. The purchase of complete sets of important periodical publications can often only be effected as opportunity offers, and the University will need money in hand for this purpose.

We have discussed the details of the recurrent expenditure in a memorandum printed in the volume of appendices to this report. We estimate the total increase in recurring expenditure at Dacca which will be needed at the inception of the University at about Rs. 5,94,000 if there are 1,500 students; at about Rs. 6,75,000 if there are 2,000 students.

XIII.—Conclusion.

230. To sum up, our objects and aims in regard to Dacca University do not differ from those adopted by Government at the inception of the scheme. The Government of India desired that Dacca should be a model university of a type new to the Presidency and to India. We hope that it will serve as such. Certainly in no other place in Bengal outside the metropolis are there greater opportunities for establishing a university which may serve as an example; and in some ways Dacca has even greater opportunities than those of Calcutta itself. The group of noble buildings, libraries and laboratories, the green playing fields with great spaces around them, uncramped by the crowded areas of a metropolis, will give to the young students of Bengal enviable opportunities to know the happy yet strenuous life enjoyed by so many university students in the 'island-universities' of the West. Dacca will be a small university compared to Calcutta, but it is to be remembered that many of the greatest of university teachers have lived and worked in universities beside which Dacca will be large; and in many ways the opportunities of Dacca will be unique. We hope that it will serve as a new home for the study of that Arabic philosophy and science which gave fresh intellectual life to Europe during the middle ages; that Sanskritic studies will find a worthy and equal place alongside Islamic studies; and that in this quiet intellectual centre in the great plains and waters of Eastern Bengal, and in touch with a historic city, there may spring up a fresh synthesis of eastern and western studies. These are the possibilities of Dacca. It will lie with the men who control the University to turn those possibilities into realities.

231. We strongly urge that the University of Dacca should be established without further delay. The end of the war will, we hope, have eased the financial situation. But if the money available is not sufficient to provide at once for the full scheme which we propose, we hope that the University will be started on the lines laid down, and in such a way as to allow for its early enlargement and development.

232. In concluding this chapter, we desire to express our appreciation of the very able report of the Dacca University Committee, which has so greatly facilitated our own task in dealing with this subject. We are also much indebted to the other official documents relating to the University which have been placed by Government at our disposal, as well as to the officials of Dacca College and Jagannath College and others who assisted us in our enquiries during our stay at Dacca.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

A TEACHING UNIVERSITY IN CALCUTTA.

I.—The need for reorganisation.

1. The problem of so organising the existing resources of Calcutta as to make them fully available for the purposes of a teaching university is a very complex and difficult one. The largest and most difficult part of the problem is the reorganisation of the instruction of men students in the Faculties of Arts and Science, and the co-ordination of the work of the 'arts colleges' with that of the University. We shall deal with this part of our problem in the present chapter, leaving the education of women,¹ and the organisation of teaching in professional and technological subjects, for separate treatment. If a good working solution of the problem of the men's arts colleges in Calcutta can be found, not only will the greatest of our difficulties disappear, but the principles which we arrive at will apply, in a greater or less degree, in the other spheres also.

2. There are two distinct factors in the existing material for university teaching in arts and science in the city of Calcutta. On the one hand there are the colleges, which, as we have seen,² vary widely in size, strength and efficiency. Until very recently they provided all the instruction offered to students in arts and science within the city of Calcutta; and each of them was, and is, with almost insignificant exceptions, organised as a self-contained unit. Something has already been said regarding the unhappy effects of this system.³ On the other hand there is the University, which is, in form, independent of and distinct from the colleges. In regard to undergraduate teaching its functions are limited to the definition of curricula, the inspection of colleges

¹ The problem of women's education in Bengal is so important that it seems necessary to deal with it apart. But while we think that in the existing conditions special provision will have to be made, we wish to make it clear that in our judgment women should be admitted to all university courses.

² Chapter XIII, para. 2.

³ *Ibid.*, paras. 7-10

and the conduct of examinations.¹ It has already been pointed out that just because the control thus exercised is in effect divorced from teaching, it is apt to be unduly rigid and mechanical, and to react unfavourably upon the character of college teaching.²

3. The University has in recent years undertaken the provision of post-graduate teaching, and has for this purpose, as well as for the encouragement of independent investigation, organised a large staff, the majority of whom are solely engaged in this work, though about thirty *per cent.* of them are college teachers.³ In effect post-graduate or higher teaching within the city of Calcutta is now wholly under the direct control of the University. It is organised quite separately from the undergraduate work, and the bodies which direct it are distinct from the bodies which define the undergraduate curricula.

4. The provision and control of post-graduate teaching by the University formed almost the only possible mode, under the existing regulations, of making adequate provision for the needs of higher teaching. This development was due to the report of the Universities Commission of 1902, which recommended that the Indian universities should have power to make better provision for advanced work, and to appoint lecturers; the Universities Act of 1904 accordingly gave powers for this sort of work.⁴ Neither the Commission nor the Act suggested that the University should undertake the whole of the higher work. The attempt to attach teaching functions to an affiliating university produced, however, some unfortunate results. In its first stages, the provision of teaching by the University, at a time when some of the colleges were doing work of the same kind, tended to draw the University into a sort of rivalry with the colleges. The recent unification of the post-graduate teaching under university control was intended to put an end to this rivalry, and to some extent it has been successful in this aim. But it tends to discourage the colleges by seeming to mark them off as institutions to which work of inferior importance is assigned, and to reduce the quality

¹ Apart from the provision of certain classes in Persian and Arabic: Chapter XIII, para. 67 and note.

² Chapter XIII, paras. 37-43.

³ Chapter XV.

⁴ Universities Commission Report, 1902, pages 6 and 57; Indian Universities Act, 1904, Section 3.

of the teaching afforded to undergraduates by withholding many of the best teachers,¹ either partially or wholly, from college work.

5. It is unhealthy that any sharp line of division should be drawn between the higher and the lower teaching work of a university. It is equally disadvantageous that a system of more advanced instruction should be built up at the expense of undergraduate teaching, which is the foundation of nearly all advanced work. Advanced and independent work, in the University as a whole, cannot be satisfactorily fostered by the mere superimposition of an organisation, however carefully devised for this purpose, upon a bad system of undergraduate training. Independent work is largely the outcome of intellectual curiosity. If this quality, instead of being stimulated, is discouraged in the lower grades of training, as it is under the present system, no great results can be expected. Unless the spirit of independent and critical enquiry has been encouraged and trained before the student reaches the stage of post-graduate work, it cannot reasonably be expected that his work under 'research professors' should be, except in very rare instances, much better than mechanical.

6. The problem of bringing to an end the isolation of the colleges and the artificial severance of higher and lower work, and of securing that the influence of the best teachers shall play freely upon the best students in all stages, would be all but insoluble if it were necessary to deal with the whole mass of students now included in the colleges, the majority of whom are in truth school boys, needing the school method of teaching. The proposals which have been put forward in earlier chapters² for the reorganisation of intermediate education offer, however, a solution of this difficulty. When these proposals are carried into effect, more than half (on present figures over 7,000 out of 11,000) of such a body of students as is now included in the Calcutta arts colleges will be otherwise provided for, in a mode which will far more adequately meet their needs, leaving a balance of only a little over 4,000 undergraduates to be dealt with. To these must be added the large number of students now included in the post-graduate classes. This number will of course be increased by the natural increase in the number of candidates for degrees, though we may

¹ See, for example, the evidence of Mr. Benoy Kumar Sen, in answer to Question I.

² Chapters XXXI and XXXII.

hope that a considerable proportion of the increase will be provided for in professional and technological courses of study, and by the development in the mufassal of more highly equipped teaching institutions, to which we propose that the name of university colleges should be given. If it is decided, as we shall recommend, to make the course for the degrees of B.A. and B. Sc. one of three years, beyond the present intermediate stage, this will involve a further increase. But if (as in the interests of the University we hope may be the case) the number of degree students in arts and science above the intermediate stage studying in the city of Calcutta does not rise within a reasonable period much above 6,000, it will still be very much greater than the normal number provided for by either Oxford or Cambridge. The problem before us is therefore the problem of providing, with the material now available, or reasonably likely to be available, in the city of Calcutta, a sound and generous system of training for some 6,000 undergraduate students and an indefinite number of graduate students in the Faculties of Arts and Science, of whom there are about 1,500 at present.

7. But it must be recognised that all such computations are very uncertain, and will remain so until the new system of intermediate training is brought into effective working. Not until then will the exact character of the university problem be fully revealed. Not merely the number of students to be dealt with, but the needs and difficulties of the colleges both in Calcutta and in the mufassal, will be gradually disclosed as the new intermediate system grows. And it will only be when that system is fully developed that the university will be supplied with students adequately trained for higher work, and capable of undertaking courses of study of a kind not now offered. For these reasons some may feel that the full reorganisation of university work in Calcutta would be undertaken with the best prospects of success if it could be postponed until the new intermediate system has been wrought out, at any rate in its main lines. We should be reluctant to suggest any postponement; but it is necessary to recognise and provide for the difficulty of organising a fully efficient teaching university in Calcutta, concurrently with the organisation of the intermediate colleges, which must profoundly influence the whole problem. But we do not propose at this point to express any opinion on

this matter. We shall proceed to discuss the problem of organising a teaching university in Calcutta, and the lines which it ought to follow, without more than incidental reference to the order in which the necessary changes should be undertaken.

II.—Some projects of reform.

8. We have received from our correspondents and witnesses a number of suggestions for the solution of this problem. Many of them are vague and ill-defined. We cannot attempt to analyse or discuss them all¹. But it will be convenient to examine at the outset the principal forms which these proposals have taken: even if we find it necessary to reject them, they will give us some guidance.

9. There are some who, while recognising many of the evils which result from the existing system, are apparently of opinion that any bold or far-reaching projects of reform ought not to be ventured upon, but that a sufficient improvement for immediate needs may be achieved without any fundamental departure from the traditional methods of organisation. It is difficult to analyse with precision the ideas of those of our correspondents who seem to share this point of view, because few of them appear to have thought out very definitely what changes they would recommend, and no one of our correspondents has given us even the outlines of a scheme based upon these ideas. But if we may attempt to formulate the kind of system which we imagine they would advocate, it would be somewhat as follows.

10. To begin with, they attach high value to the collegiate organisation of teaching, and fear any change which might lead to a weakening of the influence of the colleges; and in this view, so far as the better colleges are concerned, we heartily agree. But they

¹ For other schemes than those discussed see, e.g., the answers of Mr. Gauranganath Banerjee (Question 5), Mr. Manmathanath Banerji (Question 5), Mr. J. R. Barrow (Question 5), Mr. Mohini Mohan Bhattacharjee (Question 2), Mr. Govinda Chandra Bhowal (Question 5), Mr. Arthur Brown (Question 5), Mr. Santosh Kumar Chatterjee (Question 5), Rai Yatindra Nath Choudhury (Question 7), Mr. N. N. Dey (Question 8), Mr. P. G. D'Souza (Question 5), Mr. Bimal Chandra Ghosh (Question 5), the Rev. W. E. S. Holland (Question 5), Mr. H. Stanley Jevons (Question 5), Mr. T. Cutthbertson Jones (Question 5), Mr. Radhakamal Mukerjee, Mr. K. G. Naik (Question 5), Mr. Akshaykumar Sarkar (Question 5), Mr. Surendranath Sen (Question 5), Dr. Prabhu Dutt Shastri (Question 5). (The last four recommend that 'the University should assume direct financial control of all the Calcutta colleges.) Shams-ul-Ulama Abu Nasr Waheed (Question 5), Mr. K. Zachariah (Question 5).

seem to think it necessary, for the maintenance of the colleges, that they should retain, as fully as now, the conduct of all undergraduate instruction, both pass and honours, and that the University should be practically excluded from affording to them any assistance in this field, except in subjects with which no college deals. They would be willing to allow co-operation among the colleges on an ampler scale than is now practised ; but they would leave this co-operation to be arranged voluntarily by the colleges themselves, being afraid to entrust the function of co-ordination to the University because they distrust the University, as at once the rival and the taskmaster of the colleges. For the same reason, they would deny to the University any fuller degree of control over the quality and character of the teaching given in its name than is afforded by the existing conditions of affiliation ; though, as we have seen,¹ this control is now wholly ineffective, and its ineffectiveness is one of the causes of the present unhappy state of things. They would leave to the University, in the undergraduate sphere, only its present functions of defining curricula and conducting examinations ; though, as we have seen,² the control thus exercised now operates to restrict the freedom of teaching, and constitutes one of the most deadening and sterilising influences in the existing system. Apart from these functions, they would leave to the University nothing but the conduct of post-graduate work, and perhaps of some new activities in the sphere of technology. They would thus perpetuate the unfortunate cleavage which now exists between the higher and the lower branches of university work. At the same time, some of them would advocate that the colleges should be encouraged to undertake post-graduate teaching on their own account, though experience has shown that very few colleges have been capable of undertaking such work on even a narrow basis. This would, of course, necessarily revive and intensify the friction between colleges and university which the post-graduate scheme of 1917 was designed to alleviate, and which had, before that scheme was formulated, become so acute that some means of removing it had obviously become indispensable.

11. We sympathise most cordially with the desire to strengthen the collegiate system, and the influence exercised by the colleges

¹ Chapter XIII, para. 37.

² *Ibid.*, paras. 38-41.

over their students, which is the governing motive of proposals of this character. But we feel that if this praiseworthy end is to be attained, it is necessary to go more directly to the root of the existing defects than such proposals attempt to do. If the colleges are to exercise a greater and a deeper influence, it can only be by their being strengthened ; and this can, in our judgment, be best achieved by giving them a fuller partnership in the University, and by enriching them by a real co-operation with the University, instead of leaving them as more or less isolated institutions, each dependent upon its own resources. Proposals such as we have described seem to us to leave untouched the fundamental evils of the present system. They are, consciously or unconsciously, inspired by a belief that the interests of the University and its colleges are necessarily inconsistent, and by pessimism as to the possibility of real and cordial co-operation. This atmosphere of distrust, which is encouraged by the present mode of organisation, has, in our judgment, largely contributed to produce many of the defects with which we have to deal. If and in so far as this distrust is justified, the main effort at reform should aim at removing its causes not by tinkering at the superficial symptoms, but by a bold and well thought out policy of reorganisation. And from this point of view we have welcomed and been helped by certain other and bolder schemes of reform which have been laid before us, because they attempt to deal frankly with a difficult situation. Two of these schemes seem to us to deserve close examination.

12. Several correspondents and witnesses¹ have suggested that Presidency College, either alone or with the other Government colleges in Calcutta and its immediate vicinity, or possibly with a few of the best equipped Calcutta colleges, might be formed into a compact teaching university under Government control, empowered to arrange its own curricula and to grant its own degrees. Some of the advocates of these schemes suggest that after the establishment of such a new State university, the remaining Calcutta colleges, in conjunction with the existing teaching organisation of the University, should be organised as a second teaching university ; while the mufassal colleges should be grouped together as a third university, of the affiliating type, to be known as the

See the answers to Question 5 of Mr. R. N. Gilchrist, Mr. G. H. Langley and Mr. D. B. Meek ; and Mr. W. C. Wordsworth, General Memoranda, page 489.

University of Bengal.¹ Others seem to suggest that, beyond the establishment of a new State university, no change should be made, but that the existing affiliating system should be left much as it stands, though deprived of its strongest and most efficient members. Our correspondents have not made any clear suggestions as to the mode of government to be instituted in such a State university as they propose; nor have they fully worked out the organisation which would be necessary for the other colleges under their various schemes.

13. It is impossible not to sympathise with the motives which have prompted these proposals. Their authors believe, not without reason, that under the existing conditions the strongest arts college in Bengal cannot use its strength and resources for the best advantage of its students, because it is compelled to follow methods and plans of study designed for the weaker colleges. They feel that, even as it stands, Presidency College compares not unfavourably with some of the minor universities of the West; and that, given freedom, it could point the way to advance for other colleges, and play the part of a model teaching institution of university rank.

14. But while it is easy to understand the motives which have prompted this suggestion, it cannot be regarded as presenting any prospect of success. A university wholly financed and directly controlled by the State, lodged in the heart of Calcutta, and surrounded by institutions belonging to a non-State university, would surely be in a very difficult position. Is it imaginable that the public of Bengal would regard with any kind of patience the concentration of all the available public funds for higher education in Calcutta upon one favoured institution which received only a small minority of the students, while the majority were left to pick up what education they could without State aid? And would it not be idle to talk of affording a 'model' to other institutions which were left under the disabilities of the affiliating system, and denied access to the public resources whereby the model was maintained? The theory of the State-supported 'model' institution has in Bengal already shown itself in practice disappointing.

¹ The proposal for the establishment of a University of Bengal is more fully dealt with in Chapter XXXV.

15. Realising this difficulty, some of our correspondents have recommended that the State should afford an equal degree of support to the other university or universities. But this must result, in no long period, in an expenditure on higher education so large in amount, and so difficult to control or check, that no well-advised Government could be brought to contemplate it. It is one of the main functions of Government to secure a just apportionment of the total funds available for education in its various grades. Under the existing system this is extremely difficult; under the proposed system it would be yet more difficult, for the scheme offers a vista of ever increasing and wasteful duplication of expenditure upon competing organisations for higher education in one city. It is important, if a policy of educational reform is to be undertaken, that the State should know, with some approach to exactitude, the extent of its liabilities, and of the claims likely to be made upon it, in regard to higher education, in order that it may make a just apportionment to the other grades, and to a wisely distributed series of institutions in each grade; and this need must be kept in view in shaping any scheme of reorganisation.

16. Apart from the financial difficulty, which would be formidable in itself, there are two other grave objections to the scheme, at any rate in the form in which it is most frequently advocated, and which would involve a complete severance between Presidency College and the existing teaching organisation of the University. In the first place, it would not forward, it would forbid, the efficient co-ordination of the teaching resources of Calcutta. It would not, without a large expenditure of money, increase the teaching strength available for students of Presidency College; it would permanently exclude the possibility of Presidency College performing the function which it was originally meant to perform (and which the existing system has rendered impracticable), the function of supplementing the work of other colleges; and it would leave the remaining colleges of Calcutta, and their students, if anything in a worse position than that which they now occupy. In the second place it would infallibly produce intense friction and bitterness between the two rival institutions, located, as they would be, not merely in the same city, but cheek by jowl in the same quarter of it. For these reasons this

scheme must be put aside as inadvisable. At the same time it must be recognised that its main object, that of securing for a well-organised institution with good traditions greater freedom in the training of its students, is one which ought to be secured.

17. Another group of correspondents¹ propose,—though the suggestion has not been worked out in any detail—that the beginning already made by the University in the provision of post-graduate courses should be extended; and that the courses for the degrees of B.A. and B.Sc. with honours should be separated from the pass courses and undertaken directly by the University. It is added by some of the advocates of this scheme that in order to cope with its new functions, the University should absorb Presidency College, the whole property and income of which should be transferred by Government. The other colleges would be left to do pass-teaching only; the supporters of this plan are content to assign to them a humble function, for which they might be sufficiently manned with teachers mainly second-rate.

18. This scheme is inspired by two sound and praiseworthy motives: in the first place, a desire to draw a distinction between students of exceptional ability and students of only average powers, and to provide for the former a better training than is now open to them; in the second place, a belief that the University ought to exercise a more effective control over the teaching given in its name than it now does. Both of these ends ought to be secured by a well-devised scheme of reorganisation; but it may be doubted whether they would be satisfactorily attained by bringing the whole body of the abler students—who must always be very numerous in Calcutta—under the control of what would be apt to become a single, huge, centralised lecture-mechanism.

19. One of the difficulties of such a scheme would be that of differentiating in a satisfactory way between the average and the really able, the pass and the honours, students. When the student began his course, he would have to choose whether he would become a university student, reading for an honours degree,

¹ See the answers to Question 5 of Mr. Haridas Bhattacharyya, Mr. Bhuvan Chandra Das, Mr. Syamacharan Ganguli, Dr. Hiralal Halder, and Mr. Prasanta Chandra Mahalanobis.

or a college student, reading for a pass degree. He would have to make this decision himself. His schoolmasters (unless in the meantime the high schools had been completely reorganised) would give him little guidance in judging his powers for more advanced work. There would be no other means of offering him qualified and disinterested advice, for the authorities of both the University and the colleges, competing for his fees, would be interested parties. He would very often make the wrong decision; many ill-qualified students might find their way into the honours classes, and spoil the work of their class-mates and their own careers. But once the choice was made, it would be extremely difficult to change. Under a scheme of this sort, wherein honours and pass work are controlled by different authorities, it must be all but impossible to provide for a transition from the one to the other, such as experience shows to be often desirable.

20. But a further, and perhaps more important, effect of this scheme would be to reduce the colleges to a position of insignificance and humiliation, and to make an unhappy cleavage among the student-body. The students would be divided into two classes, superior beings called university students, and inferior called college students; and both sides would suffer. The college students would be deprived of the advantages of association with their ablest contemporaries. The university students would be deprived of the social benefits of college life—benefits which, even under the present system, are to some extent realised by some of the better colleges. The University would in fact become an overpowering competitor with its own colleges: a competitor in the unfair position of being able to impose whatever conditions it pleased upon its rivals, and to establish for itself a monopoly of all the most interesting work. It would draw away from the colleges all their ablest teachers. The ultimate result might well be to reduce the colleges to such a state of insignificance that their continued existence would scarcely be worth while.

21. It is possible that the advocates of this scheme would not repudiate this conclusion: that their ultimate aim is the establishment in Calcutta of what is known as a 'unitary' university, wherein all the teaching is centralised under direct university control. This is, in the abstract, the most advantageous mode of university organisation, where the conditions make it

possible; we have recommended its adoption in Dacca, and we hope that it will be generally followed in other new universities which may in future be established in Bengal. But we consider it to be at once unattainable and undesirable in the conditions existing in Calcutta. The college system is too deeply rooted, and in the case of the better colleges represents too valuable traditions to be swept aside, even if that were desirable. What is yet more important, the students are, and will always be, so numerous in Calcutta, and the conditions of their life and work are in many ways so difficult, that any wholly centralised system of instruction would probably break down, and would certainly be unsatisfactory. In Calcutta, as in London, and for not dissimilar reasons, the conditions seem almost to dictate a multi-collegiate system.

22. The college as such, therefore, has an important and valuable part to play in the working of a teaching university in Calcutta. This being so, any scheme of reform ought to aim at using the powers and resource of the University to strengthen rather than to weaken the colleges: to change their character and methods of work, no doubt, and to exact from them higher standards of equipment and staff, and better conditions of residence for their students; but at the same time to offer them the chance of playing a great and important part, such as might worthily demand the best services of their members.

23. The two projects of reform which we have discussed both aim at the creation of a teaching university in Calcutta. They are inconsistent with one another. But each of them points to certain ends which ought to be attained by a well-devised scheme. On the one hand the teachers of a strong college ought to be assured of greater freedom than they now possess in guiding the work of their pupils. On the other hand special provision should be made to ensure that the ablest students have access to the instruction of the ablest teachers; and the University should exercise a closer control over the teaching given in its name than it is now able to do. It ought not to be impossible to construct a system which will give satisfaction to all these needs.

III.—A new synthesis required.

24. The history and present circumstances of university education in Calcutta make it necessary that if a teaching university

is to be organised in the city, it should be of a new type, not exactly corresponding to any now existing. It cannot be a 'unitary' university like Edinburgh and Manchester, Harvard and Yale. This, which is the simplest and most easily workable form of university organisation, can be applied in Dacca, but it is not applicable to the complex conditions existing in Calcutta. The collegiate system is too deeply rooted in Calcutta to make it possible. Moreover, the number of students is too large to be dealt with directly by a single supreme authority. For their proper discipline and guidance, and in order that they may enjoy the advantages and amenities of corporate life, it is necessary that they should be members of some corporate entity, less in size than the University. This corporate entity is provided by the college. Some of the colleges in Calcutta have traditions and a corporate spirit which are of real value; it would be a mistake to waste or to weaken them. The very variety of the types which they represent is a source of enrichment; and although even the strongest of them is too weak to undertake with full success the whole of the training which their students ought to receive, they can nearly all make vitally important contributions to the life of the University.

25. The Teaching University of Calcutta must, therefore, be a university of colleges, superficially resembling Oxford and Cambridge, and, more closely, the reconstructed University of London. But in many respects the analogy with Oxford and Cambridge, and even with London, will not hold, and may be misleading. We have in truth to find a new synthesis between the University and its colleges, wherein the University will not be something outside of and apart from the colleges, as it now is, but the colleges will be in the fullest sense members of, and partners in, the University. It must be a system wherein the University will be really responsible for the character of the teaching given in its name, and will realise that it is the training given to students which is of primary importance, and that the examinations which test this training are of subsidiary importance. It must be a system wherein the colleges, while stronger and freer than they now are, and able to command more fully than ever the loyalty of their students, will neither be tempted to rival the University or claim independence of it, nor have reason to feel any jealousy or fear of it, or to regard it as a competitor.

26. If such a synthesis of college and university is to be achieved, the colleges which take part in it must be much stronger and better equipped for their work than most of them now are. They must fulfil conditions, different in some respects and in general much more exacting than the existing system imposes upon them. They must be prepared to work in harmony with one another and with the University to an extent now unknown. They must no longer think of themselves as being virtually self-contained and self-dependent, but must strive after the far higher ideal of being free co-operating partners in a great enterprise, each making its own distinctive contribution to the common strength, and each enriched by the strength of its fellows. They must be given every ground for realising that their prestige, dignity and security, and their influence over their students, will not be diminished, but will, on the contrary, be greatly increased under the new system; and that they will not be institutions subordinate to the University, as now, but component parts of it, able to exercise a powerful influence over its policy and work. A main object of the scheme which we shall propose is to increase the prestige and importance of the colleges; and for that reason we shall define conditions for the admission of a college to the privileges of the new system which only thoroughly efficient colleges will be able to fulfil, and shall propose, for those colleges which cannot fulfil the conditions, temporary and provisional arrangements which will place them in a position of inferiority, corresponding to the inferiority of their equipment so long as they continue to perform their present functions.

27. At the very outset we desire to make it plain that if a thoroughly sound system of university training is to be brought into existence in Calcutta, it can in our judgment only be by means of some such synthesis of University and colleges as we shall endeavour to define. We do not disguise from ourselves the fact that the difficulties are considerable. Our proposals will depend absolutely for their success upon the existence or the creation of a number of thoroughly well-equipped colleges, upon their loyal co-operation in working the new system, and upon their realising that under these proposals a more worthy and dignified position is allotted to them than that which they now occupy. Failing these conditions our scheme of reform must break down; nor will the piecemeal adoption of detailed suggestions be, in our judgment, of much

avail, unless the fundamental idea of a new synthesis between the University and its colleges is loyally accepted and applied. Furthermore, it must be recognised that the proposals which we shall put forward will involve substantial additional expenditure, both from public and, we hope, also from private sources.

28. Before attempting to define the changes which will be necessary in order to bring about this readjustment of the relations of University and colleges, it seems to be essential to consider the changes which are desirable in the methods of teaching and study now pursued in Calcutta University. For the principal aim of all schemes of university reform is to improve the quality of the training given to students; and it will only be by success in this regard that any scheme can be justified. Yet no enactments or regulations can of themselves attain this. A multiplicity of regulations is indeed, in this field, self-defeating. A fine tradition of teaching, and a full use of all the varied modes of making appeal to the adolescent mind, can only be hoped for when a body of teachers, inspired by the right spirit, are left in freedom to do their best for the training of their students and the advancement of learning; and no amount of regulations will avail if the right men and the right spirit are lacking. It is not, therefore, with the idea of suggesting minute regulations that we propose to discuss the organisation of university teaching, but rather to obtain a clear idea of the kind of work which ought to go on in such a university as we hope to see established, and by that means to arrive at a clearer definition of the relative functions of the University and its colleges.

IV.—The duration of the degree course.

29. In the first place it is our judgment, and that of many of our correspondents, that the duration and distribution of the degree course should be reconsidered. At present the candidate for the degree of B. A. or B. Sc. has to spend at least four years in college classes; but these four years are divided into two distinct halves, which are very frequently spent in different colleges. If the young graduate proceeds to the M.A. or M.Sc. degree—and the M.A. or M.Sc. degree is more and more coming to be regarded as the proper conclusion of the course, just because the lower degree course forms at present so inadequate a training—he has a third period of two years, spent (in most cases)

under a different control, that of the university post-graduate classes. The full course thus extends over six years; and as the average age at which it is begun is over 18 (for but few succeed in entering at the legal minimum age of 16), the student is usually not ready to begin upon the work of his life until he is 24 or 25. This course seems to be too long for many of the students, and too broken for all.

30. If the intermediate stage is, as we have recommended, treated as pre-university work, and if the able student is allowed to enter it a year earlier than he now does, the first of the three broken periods of the university course would be taken charge of by the intermediate colleges, described in Chapter XXXII, and the student would begin his true university course at the minimum age of seventeen and the average age of perhaps eighteen to nineteen. When this change has been effected—a process which may take some years—the most desirable arrangement, and that which would be most in accord with the practice of other universities, would be that he should now spend three years in reading for the degree of B.A., or B.Sc.; that he should normally spend the whole of this period under the same direction; and that, for the majority of ordinary students, this should constitute the whole university course. It seems to be the experience of most universities that a generous and well-balanced scheme of training in the arts or the sciences cannot well be fitted into a shorter period than three years; and if this course of study is to be treated as a single whole, and if the student is to have the advantage of being helped by teachers who know his needs intimately, it must be obvious that it ought normally to be followed throughout in the same institution, and under the same guidance. On this basis the student could usually expect to have completed his course, and to be ready to begin his career, at the age of 21 or 22, which is the right age for any man whose life is not to be devoted to pure learning. Only those students who intended either to devote themselves for a time to independent investigation, or to pursue post-graduate professional courses—in law, for example, or in teaching—would usually remain longer at the University.

31. We recognise, however, that it would be unfair and impracticable to introduce suddenly this demand of an additional year for the degree course, especially before the new intermediate

system is brought into full working order and the normal age of beginning the degree course reduced, as will be the tendency of the reforms which we propose.¹ But we think that the plan of study outlined above should be accepted as an end to be gradually worked towards. In the meanwhile, the three-years' course for the degree should at once be applied in the case of honours students, and extended to the pass students at the earliest practicable date, when the new system had been brought into operation.

32. After a well-designed honours course extending over three years, it does not seem to be desirable that the student should in all cases be required to undergo a fresh spell of full-time lecture-work of the ordinary type, in preparation for the higher degree of M.A. or M.Sc. In the Scottish universities (where there is no B.A. degree) the degree of M.A. is given as the first degree at the end of the three-years' course. In Oxford and Cambridge it is given by lapse of time, without further instruction or examination. In some other universities the honours graduate may receive the master's degree after a single year, on presentation of a piece of independent work, but without necessary attendance at lectures or formal written examination; though in many cases students find it advisable to prolong their studies either privately or in the University beyond this minimum period. The last method has great advantages in many subjects and for many students. It enables the young graduate to enter at once upon his career, while at the same time encouraging him to continue working at his subject. Thus a young honours graduate in history or economics might, while working at law, earn his M.A. without attending lectures, by using his previous training to work up some subject where legal and historical or economic interests combined. Naturally, in doing this work, he would seek the advice of his teachers in history and economics as well as in law. Should the three-years' undergraduate course for honours students be adopted, we should strongly recommend the University to consider seriously this mode of approach to the master's degree in appropriate cases for honours students.

33. Pass graduates preparing for the M.A. or M.Sc. degree would still be required to attend regular courses of instruction, and for them teaching would be necessary. These courses should

¹ See Chapter VIII.

extend over at least two years, though some relaxation might in special cases be allowed in regard to the amount of attendance at lectures required. The courses would naturally correspond, in some degree, with the courses taken by honours students in their later undergraduate years, and some of these courses, whether arranged by the colleges or by the University, might be used for the purpose. But in so far as distinct courses were provided, they would be arranged specifically to suit the needs of pass students; and the present system, whereby students of very different abilities and attainments have to be dealt with together, often with unhappy results, would come to an end. It is plain that in pursuing the M.A. course the pass student would in many cases profit by remaining under the general direction of the teachers who had guided his work during his undergraduate course, and that he should therefore, if possible, continue to be a member of the college in which he had studied for the lower degree.

34. In regard to duration of courses,¹ we therefore recommend, not for immediate enactment, but for the consideration of the proper university authorities when constituted :—

- (a) *That the course for the degree of B.A., after the intermediate stage, should extend over three years in the case of honours students : and that the same rule should be applied to pass students as soon as the organisation of the University's resources renders this possible.*
- (b) *That the degree of M.A. or M.Sc. should be conferred upon honours students not less than one year after the taking of the first degree ; that in appropriate cases it should be given on the presentation of a satisfactory piece of independent work done under the supervision of a responsible teacher, but without necessary attendance at lectures or written examination.*
- (c) *That the degree of M.A. or M.Sc. should be conferred upon pass graduates who have attended courses of instruction and passed an examination, the period of attendance required to be at least two years ; and, that the same method of obtaining the degree might also be open to honours students.*

¹ We desire to draw attention to the great differences in the number of working days of the different colleges, as set out in Statement IX printed in Volume XIII of the report.

V.—Differentiation of courses of study.

35. It has been assumed in the last section that the courses of study for honours degrees will cease to be a mere addendum to, and will be, from the intermediate stage onwards, differentiated from, the courses of study for pass degrees. This is strongly urged by many of our correspondents. It has already been proposed by the University, but could not be practically carried into effect under the system of self-contained colleges. This reform seems to us to be of vital importance, as affording the only effective means whereby the able student can be given the training he needs, both for his own and the community's advantage.

36. It does not, of course, necessarily follow that the lectures and classes utilised by honours and by pass students need be in all cases entirely distinct. Such a provision might in some cases involve needless duplication; and in the first year, especially, it might often be advantageous that students reading for an honours course and for a parallel pass group should to some extent work together. But this would be a matter which each college would have to arrange for itself.

37. We do not propose to suggest schemes of honours schools; that is the business of the properly constituted authorities of the University. But there are two dangers in the institution of honours courses distinct from pass courses on which something should be said.

38. In the first place, it is too often and too readily assumed that an honours course must necessarily be a highly specialised course, limited to a single line of study. This view is naturally encouraged by the methods hitherto employed in Calcutta, where honours work has meant more special and detailed study of one of the pass subjects, while the study of the other subjects is being carried on simultaneously. Highly specialised courses are no doubt desirable in some subjects, notably in some of the sciences. But in general the training which the student receives before entering the University does not give to even the ablest students a sufficient basis of general culture to justify them in proceeding direct to highly specialised courses, and they are apt to suffer from being thrust into them. This would remain true even if the preliminary training were materially improved.

39. The distinction between the honours and the pass course should not be that the honours course is necessarily narrower in range than the pass course—it may even be wider; nor should the distinction consist merely in the demand from the honours student of a greater volume of work, though of course the able student will always read more than the average student. It should reside in two things: first, that the subjects of the honours school are more closely articulated in view of a clearly-defined purpose or interest; and, second (and much more important), that the mode of treatment is different, the student being expected to show more independence of mind, to do more of his work on his own account, and to need guidance rather than mere instruction. There is real danger in excessive and premature specialisation in honours schools; and in order to show how this may be avoided, an appendix to this report will endeavour to explain in fuller detail various kinds of courses of study which, while deserving to be called honours courses because they could only be undertaken by men of real ability and powers of independent work, would yet be by no means highly specialised.

40. If an honours system such as is indicated above is to be carried out, it is of the first importance that the selection of students for admission to honours courses should be very carefully made: it is an injustice, both to the student himself and to the other students, if a man incapable of doing work of genuine honours quality is admitted to an honours course. The responsibility for advising the student as to the course he shall pursue must necessarily fall upon the college.

41. But a decision made at the beginning of a student's course, before his abilities and attainments are fully known to his teachers, ought not to determine his whole career. It is therefore important that easy means should be provided whereby the honours student who finds the work too exacting may be transferred to a pass course, or the pass student who shows abilities at first unsuspected may be transferred to an honours course, without sacrifice of time. In such cases, any rigid pedantry in the enforcement of rules regarding attendance should be anxiously avoided; and a very high degree of discretion should be allowed to the college authorities in recommending such transfers, and to the university authorities in accepting them, and in making the necessary

allowances. The responsibility for giving sound guidance to their students in these matters must be one of the most important functions of the colleges: it must be their duty to see that each student follows the course which is best for him, in view of his natural abilities and his future career.

42. Not less important than the organisation of distinct honours courses is the arrangement of the pass courses in such a way as to make the students feel that their work is well-planned, and its parts mutually helpful. Under the present system, as we have seen,¹ students are tempted to take grotesquely unconnected groups of subjects merely because they are thought to be easy, and many of our correspondents have commented strongly on the evil results of this practice. The subjects which may be taken for the pass degree should be divided into groups, the constituent parts of which should be carefully co-ordinated. If, for example, a period of English history and a period of English literature are included in the same group, it would be all to the good that these periods should coincide, so as to be mutually helpful.

43. At least one of the pass groups should include as one of its subjects the art of education, along with some of the principal subjects of school study;² so that the young graduate who proposes to enter the teaching profession immediately after taking his degree should not be in utter ignorance as to the nature and aims of his work. We would further suggest that each distinct pass-group, as well as each honours school, might with advantage be placed under the general direction of a special committee³ whose duty would be to ensure that the subjects were properly correlated.

44. It is in our judgment of the first importance that the methods of dealing with English in the university courses should be reconsidered. This subject will be more fully dealt with elsewhere.⁴ In the meanwhile it ought to be noted that the purposes for which English is studied are two: the first to give to the students an efficient command over a language which is not only the medium of instruction, but is also of daily practical utility, and indeed necessity, in all careers pursued by educated men; the second

¹ Chapter XIII, para. 48.

² Chapter XLIII, para. 33.

³ Chapter XXXVII, paras. 67-70, where a distinction is proposed between Boards of Studies and Committees on Courses.

⁴ Chapter XLI.

to convey to him, through a study of the riches of English literature, a comprehension of the fundamental ideas and outlook of the western world. At present all arts students are required to follow an identical course of minute study of prescribed books selected from among the principal English classics ; but science students are not, after the intermediate stage, required to take English at all. It seems to be true that science students in many cases suffer from an inadequate command of English ; but arts students also are on the average, far from possessing a real mastery of the language ;¹ and it is obvious that a system which almost confines the teaching of English to the delivery of lectures filled with minute textual commentary on a few books is not a good mode of giving a practical command of the language. On the other hand, the course of study frequently leaves both arts and science students unacquainted with the best English writing in their own subjects : there is no means of ensuring that the student of history, philosophy or science shall have studied the best models of English style in the treatment of these subjects, since his work is usually almost limited to text-books. Thus the most natural mode of introducing the student to the ideas of the West, through the subjects in which he is most interested, is neglected.

45. We recommend that the two chief aspects and purposes of English teaching described above should both be held in view ; and should be to some extent separately dealt with. It should be the duty of every college to provide practical training in the use of the English language as a spoken and written tongue, for all its students, arts and science alike ; but the treatment might, and ought to, vary according to the proficiency of the student and his special needs. There should therefore be no prescription as to the number of hours of instruction to be attended, and any university test should take the form of a test in English compositions with the addition, if possible, of an oral test. This practical training would, of course, involve the use of books for general reading. But the books used for this purpose should mainly be modern, and should be varied according to the special interests of various groups of students. In the selection of books for this general purpose great freedom should be left to the teachers.

¹ Chapter XIII, paras. 74-81.

46. On the other hand, English literature, involving the study of prescribed classics, and of the history of the literature, should take its place as a subject, both in an honours school (which should also include the study of relevant periods of English history), and in various pass groups. The prescription of a single uniform group of books for all students, even in the Faculty of Arts, should cease. At the same time, since we strongly hold that some study of standard English books should, in the existing stage of western education in India, form part of the course of study of every student, we recommend that even in those courses (as for example in honours schools of history or philosophy, or in science courses) wherein a specific period of general English literature was not included, a few books bearing on the subjects of the course, and chosen on the ground of the clarity and vigour of their style or the importance of the ideas they expressed, should be prescribed for study, the examination being so framed as to afford an opportunity of showing not a minute textual knowledge, but evidence of general understanding of the books prescribed. Thus in an honours school of history some Burke, some Gibbon, some Macaulay, or some Froude might be prescribed; in philosophy some Locke, some Berkeley, some Wordsworth; in science some of the writings of Darwin, Lyell, Huxley or Tyndall; in a course in education some of the best English educational literature. This method would ensure that the student had made a real acquaintance with some of the best exponents of English thought and writing along the lines of his special work, while avoiding the necessity of a universal compulsory study of pure literary criticism, for which not all students are suited.

47. In regard to the organisation of degree courses we therefore recommend, not for immediate enactment, but for the consideration of the proper university authorities when duly constituted :—

- (a) *That honours courses should be organised, distinct from the outset from pass courses; and that these honours courses should not in all cases be highly specialised or limited to a special subject.*
- (b) *That it should be made possible for students to change from honours to pass courses and vice versa.*
- (c) *That the pass courses should be organised in carefully considered groups of subjects.*

- (d) *That the responsibility for advising students in their choice between honours and pass courses, or between the various honours schools or pass groups, or as to the advisability of changing from one to the other, should be regarded as a serious responsibility resting upon the colleges.*
- (e) *That instruction in the practical use of the English language should be provided by every college for its students, whether arts or science; but that the amount of attendance upon such courses required for purposes of examination should not be specified by the University though attendance ought to be enforced by the colleges; and that the university test should mainly consist of a test in composition, with an oral test.*
- (f) *That a specific course in English literature, though a compulsory element in many courses, should not be a compulsory subject for all arts students, but that in all honours courses or pass groups in which English literature is not specifically included a certain number of standard books or portions of books in English should be prescribed for study.*

VI.—Methods of instruction.

48. Under the existing system almost the sole method of instruction is the lecture, supplemented by tutorial classes which commonly resolve themselves into a repetition of the lecture on a small scale. Every college is bound to provide long courses of lectures or classes at each stage in every subject in which it is affiliated; and every student is compelled to attend 75 per cent. of these as a condition of being admitted to the examination. We have already¹ analysed the unhappy effects of this system, against which many of our correspondents protest. It needs to be boldly amended.

49. The unfortunate working of the present system must not lead us to depreciate the value of the lecture as an element in university training. It is indispensable; and the really good lecture can afford a stimulus and a guidance which nothing else can replace. But bad lectures are worse than useless, they are harmful; and compulsory attendance at them vitiates the mind of the student. There are many good lecturers in Calcutta, and

¹ Chapter XIII, paras. 49-52.

there are many more who, given adequate leisure for the preparation of their discourses, would become good lecturers if there was any encouragement to them to do so. The students of the University ought not only to hear the lectures of such men, but might fairly be required to attend a reasonable number of them. But this provision can only fairly be made on three conditions: (i) the student must not be required to spend too much of his time in lecture-rooms merely submitting to instruction, when he should be working for himself; (ii) he must be given some choice, as to the lectures he will attend; and (iii) the lecture-method of instruction must be supplemented by other methods.¹

50. These ends can be secured if, in addition to the lectures provided by the colleges exclusively for the use of their own students, the courses of all the best lecturers in the University and in its constituent colleges² are thrown open to all qualified students for whom there is room, and if the student is not required to attend uniform or identical courses of lectures on every part of the ground which he is expected to cover, but is required to attend only a reasonable number of lectures approved by the University, choosing for himself (with the advice of his college authorities) which lectures he will attend, and supplementing them with work of other kinds.

51. But these conditions imply a very complete departure from the existing system. They imply, in the first place, a carefully wrought-out system of co-operation between the University and its constituent colleges, whereby, in addition to, or as a substitute for, the ordinary college lectures, public and formal instruction given by either university or college teachers appointed for this purpose by the university shall be thrown open to honours students, and also, though in a less degree, to pass students, from all the constituent colleges. Our conditions imply, in the second place, that the existing regulation which limits to 150 the number of students who may attend any lecture should be materially altered. This limit is far too high when applied to some subjects; on the other hand it constitutes an unreasonable restriction when it is applied to lectures by the

¹ See note on taking notes at the end of this chapter.

² 'Constituent' colleges are those which take a full share in the co-operative work of the University; as will be more fully defined below

best lecturers whom the University is able to provide. In their cases the only restrictions should be those dictated by the nature of the instruction they have to give, their power of holding the attention of an audience, and the limits of the available accommodation. Our conditions imply, in the third place, a systematic development of other modes of instruction besides the lecture—class-work, library work and tutorial instruction—on quite a different basis from that on which they are now employed. These methods of instruction must no longer be regarded as merely supplementary to lectures, but as something distinctive and independent. Finally, these conditions imply that some other means than the mere marking of registers of attendance at lectures should be adopted to ensure that the students are being systematically trained under proper guidance.

52. The organisation of efficient co-operation between the colleges and the University is one of the principal aims of the proposals which we shall put forward later in this chapter. It will certainly take some years to bring it into effective operation. But in the meanwhile the conditions defined above give us some useful guidance as to what the functions of the University and of the colleges should respectively be in such a system as we are discussing, when the conditions are such as to make its complete adoption practicable. Upon the University would obviously fall the responsibility of organising the co-operative system of lecturing, all the colleges contributing their share, and the University making provision for the filling of gaps, as well as for the avoidance of needless reduplication and overlapping. Upon the colleges would fall responsibilities not less important. They would, of course, have to provide their share of the total lecturing staff giving instruction to the whole University. They would have to provide courses of lectures and classes for their own students, and especially for the pass men, who would do nearly all, if not all, their work in the colleges. But besides these functions, which are not unlike those that fall upon the colleges in the existing system, they would have, under the new system, other and not less important functions which are not now provided for at all. They would have to guide the student in the distribution of his work, in his decision as to which lectures he would attend, whether in his own college or elsewhere, and as to the parts of the ground he had to cover which should

be dealt with in other ways. They would have to provide additional instruction of various types—more elementary lectures, perhaps, for some of their backward students; special classes for particular groups; help in the choice of books and in the use of libraries: and, above all, real tutorial guidance, not in the sense of 'extra coaching' in preparation for examinations, but of advice and direction in the conduct of serious work. We wish to lay great emphasis upon the need of tutorial guidance. By this phrase we do not mean to refer merely to a system of class instruction, for which alone the phrase is now employed; but something much more individual and personal. Every student should be assigned to a tutor. The tutor should not be an examination-coach, but the adviser and guide of his students. This advice need not take much time, or be administered in fixed doses at regular intervals. But every student should know that there is one among his teachers who has made a special study of his needs and progress, and to whom he can at any time go for advice. And every teacher in a college, even the most distinguished, should take a share in this informal but invaluable work.

53. Here, indeed, in the lack of personal guidance, and of intimate contact between teacher and student, is the greatest defect of the present system, as many of our correspondents have urged. Some of the gentlemen of the older generation who have favoured us with their advice, like Sir Gooroo Dass Banerjee, Sir Ramkrishna Bhandarkar, and Sir Narayan Chandavarkar, have in this regard compared the present system unfavourably with the system in which they were bred. But it must not be forgotten that, forty years ago, classes were small, the multiplication of lectures had not yet been carried to its present pitch, and personal intercourse between teacher and taught was therefore easy and natural. Others, as we have seen,¹ have described the relation between the *guru* and the *chela* in the *tdls* of old Bengal, and longed to see something like it re-established.

54. No reform in the university system of Bengal is more necessary than one which will bring back a real intimacy of personal relationship between teacher and taught. Under the existing system this kind of personal guidance seems to be unnecessary, because everything is determined by mechanical rules.

¹ Chapter XIII, para. 5.

Under the sort of system which we are describing it would become indispensable. The student would need advice as to the kind of course he should take, the subjects he should select, the lectures he should go to, the books he should read, and the way he should read them. A backward student often needs to be saved from being too despondent, or too ambitious, and to be taught not to pass lightly to another topic before he has mastered the difficulty of the last. The teacher who only sees his students at large lectures cannot easily do this for them, but a good tutor can. A very able student often finds, especially in the later stages of his career, that he will do more fruitful work if he only attends a minimum of lectures and devotes himself mainly to private work—provided that he can go to an experienced tutor who will guide his reading, and discuss with him at intervals the results and progress of his work. This is teaching at its highest. It is impossible to overrate the value and delight of this kind of intercourse between the older scholar and the younger. It cannot possibly be given by lectures. It can only be given by a tutorial system, generously conceived, and guided by a wise tradition. And if such a system as has been outlined above is to be made possible in Calcutta, it will be necessary that every student shall be able to feel that there is at least one teacher of his college to whom he has a right to go for advice, and who has given special thought to his needs.

55. "Teaching like this," writes one who has known it both as teacher and as pupil, "cannot be prescribed by rule. The obligations which it imposes upon the tutor go beyond the letter of any contract.....The methods, the range, and, still more, the intellectual and friendly intimacies of this kind of teaching depend to some extent upon the idiosyncrasies of the tutor himself; but also upon the opportunities of companionship which are allowed by the structure of college buildings. They depend also upon the other surroundings and habits of college life; upon the reticence or frankness, the suspicion or trust, which, as the case may be, the conditions of the time engender between older men and younger; and, not least, upon a kind of infection which clings to the walls of colleges where these tutorial friendships have been habitual through many successive generations of undergraduate life. At its best, it is just an older man's tactful, half-authoritative contribution to the self-training of a group of clever young men.

In other words, what is needed is less an organised system than a personal and delicately sensitive tradition—a tradition which is shy of expressing itself in words, and is so closely intertwined with private generousities, and with the sacrifice of the teacher's personal ease and self-interest, that it shrinks from disclosure and from praise. It is in a peculiar degree an English tradition. It has hardly taken root in India."

56. The writer of this passage somewhat overstates the case when he says that this kind of intimate guidance of the student "has hardly taken root in India:" we have found some admirable instances of it, especially in scientific laboratories, where numbers are smaller, and personal contact closer. In truth, this method of teaching is closely akin with an ancient Indian tradition of teaching. May we not therefore hope that, given favourable opportunities, it might very readily grow up and thrive in the colleges of Bengal? And may we not say that of all the present day needs of Bengal, none is greater than the need of just such wise and sympathetic guidance for its ardent young men, who find themselves, when they plunge into the learning of the West, often adrift without rudder or compass; eager to serve their country, but having no one to give them counsel as to how they can best use themselves for her service. In their fresh and easily lighted enthusiasms, students are very apt to be led into wild and dangerous courses, from which they would often be saved if they could talk freely to older and wiser men. But in the places to which they now go to learn wisdom, no such chance is offered to them, only an endless routine of lectures; and for the expression of the emotions and aspirations that are working in them, which ought, under the guidance of sane thought, to be turned into the motives of real public service, they are forced outwards, often to fall under influences which can bring nothing but tragic results: their university training is almost wholly unrelated to the real thoughts and aspirations of their minds.

57. It appears, then, that the reforms in the methods of instruction most needed in Calcutta include not only a reduction in the number of lectures which the student is required to attend, a great improvement in their average quality, and the throwing open of all the best lectures to all qualified students; they include the organisation, often as a substitute for formal lectures,

of smaller classes for special purposes, adapted to the needs of particular groups of students ; and, yet more important, the provision of real tutorial guidance of an individual kind for every student—guidance of a kind which cannot be strictly defined or enforced by regulations.

58. For the provision of all this work, which may be made the most valuable element in the student's training, it will be necessary, in Calcutta, to depend upon the colleges. This is peculiarly their function, though it is not by any means their only function. And it involves a very high standard of staffing in the colleges ; for the varied and elastic forms of teaching which we have described are not an inferior kind of work which can safely be left to inferior men. They demand high ability, and, yet more, real unselfishness ; and the best men engaged in university teaching ought to be eager and proud to take part in them. Hence it is important that the best lecturers should not be content merely to deliver their lectures, but should, so far as possible, take a part in the life of one college or another, in order that they may be brought into intimate and personal contact with students. This is a need which must be held in mind in defining the functions and relations of the University and its colleges.

59. While, therefore, it should be the duty of the University so to organise public lecture-instruction as to make all the best lectures available for all the ablest students, the heaviest responsibility in the working of the new system must fall upon the colleges, since it will be their duty to see that the student uses his opportunities in the best way, and to provide him, in many case with the whole, and in all cases with a very large part, and that not the least important part, of his training. This responsibility ought to be made clear.

60. For that reason it seems essential that the excessive emphasis now laid upon attendance at lectures should come to an end. It should be required that every student should receive systematic instruction in all the subjects of his course ; and, in the case of honours students, it might be required that they should attend, as part of their course of instruction, courses of lectures included in the university list (that is to say, courses given by university or college teachers appointed for this purpose by the University and open to all students in constituent colleges). But even in

the case of honours students this demand should not be so exacting as necessarily to cover the whole, or even the greater part, of his work. We suggest that the honours student might be required to attend lectures on the university list for an average of (say) five hours weekly, but that no conditions should be made as to the particular parts of his subjects in which he would attend these lectures. That would be for the college to decide, in the exercise of its responsibility for ensuring that the student arranged his work in the best and most convenient way. The pass student should be allowed, but not compelled, to attend lectures provided by the University; we think that the University ought to make a point of providing a certain number of public lectures, by the best available men, suitable for the needs of pass students, which these students could attend or not, as might seem best to themselves and to their college authorities. Thus the main responsibility would rest upon the colleges. They would have to ensure that the student received systematic instruction in every part of his work. This systematic instruction would take the form in part of attendance at lectures on the university list, open to all students, in part of attendance at ordinary college lectures (the number of which, in each subject, it would be for the college to decide), in part of attendance at smaller and informal classes. All students would be free (within the limits of available accommodation) to attend the public lectures by the most distinguished lecturers which the University would arrange, but only honours students would be *required* to attend a certain number of these lectures. And every student would enjoy the continuous guidance and advice of the tutor to whom his college allotted him—and who might be one of the most distinguished of the teachers. This system would allow of a great variation in the treatment of different students, and of adaptation to their special needs; and the able student could be given far greater freedom than he now enjoys.

61. Under this system the University—having assured itself that the college was properly equipped and conducted by men of the right type, and having done everything in its power to make the best teaching available for all students—would be content, as a condition of admitting the student to examination, with a certificate from the college that the student had been under systematic instruction in all the subjects of his course, including, in science subjects, full courses of laboratory instruction. It would

thus throw upon the college the responsibility for determining how, in each individual case, the students' needs could best be met. Precisely because this method does make the college responsible, it seems to offer great advantages; for in university affairs, as in politics, that system is best which most clearly brings home responsibility. But if it be thought that this method leaves too great freedom to the college, and might lead to undue laxity, it might be stiffened, without seriously invading the freedom of the colleges, by requiring that every student should have attended a certain number of lectures given either by the 'appointed' teachers some of whose lectures would be open to all, or by the 'recognised' college teachers whose lectures would be normally limited to their own colleges. The distinction between these two classes of teachers will be explained later.

62. If a system of instruction such as has been defined in the foregoing paragraphs is adopted, it will be apparent that the colleges which are qualified at the outset, or may be enabled gradually to qualify themselves, to play the part of constituent colleges in the Teaching University will have a vitally important and responsible part to play in the direction of their students' academic work; and that they will have far greater freedom than they have hitherto enjoyed to perform their functions in a great variety of ways, and to adapt the instruction to the individuality of the student. It will be their duty to advise the student as to the course he ought to take—this or that honours course, this or that pass group—and, when that is decided, to place him under the charge of a tutor specially competent to guide him in working on his chosen course. It will be their duty also to advise him as to the best ways of studying his subjects: in part by attending the lectures of the distinguished scholars (some of them members of his own college) whose names appear on the university lecture list; in part by attending lectures given by recognised college lecturers; in part by attending smaller classes organised by the college to meet the needs of particular groups of students; in part by private reading under direction, and by essay-work submitted to and discussed with his tutor or other teacher. An infinite variety of method is thus possible.

63. No doubt, at first, some colleges will be more ready than others to use this freedom. In some colleges—perhaps in all—the pass students may for a long time get their teaching mainly or

wholly in their own colleges, and mainly in the form of lectures. It is not to be expected that there should be any sudden and complete revolution in methods. All that can be immediately attempted is to stimulate the desire for change, to open the possibility of it, to indicate the lines upon which it can best come about, to facilitate the growth of a new tradition; and until some development has been made upon these lines it will not be possible to say that the new university system has come into being. At first the pressure of the mass of students, as well as the habits of most of the teachers, will be in favour of the continuance of something like the present methods. It will not do to be impatient. If we make new methods possible under an elastic and adaptable system, we may safely trust that the ambition of the enterprising college and the zeal of the good teacher will make use of the opportunities for developing new methods; we may safely trust also that the able student will insist that he should be allowed to hear the best lecturers of the University, and to enjoy the advantage of tutorial guidance which his friends in other colleges will be finding so beneficial.

64. It is obvious that if any such system of instruction as is suggested above is brought into operation, the college will play an indispensable part in it; so that no undergraduate can enjoy the kind of training which a Calcutta degree will come to imply, unless he is a member of a college, and of a college which has abandoned the more elementary work of the intermediate stage which at present occupies so much of the attention of college teachers. This is so important that it seems essential to lay it down that no undergraduate may become a candidate for the examinations of the University unless he is a member of a college; for even though he should attend all the lectures provided by the University, he would miss half the advantage of this system of instruction.

65. This principle ought ultimately to apply to graduates proceeding to the M.A. or M.Sc. degree equally with undergraduates; and it would undoubtedly be desirable that, after taking his bachelor's degree, the student should continue to be a member of his own college. But we recognise that, under existing circumstances, it would be impracticable to impose this as a universal rule. Unless the new system which we propose is gradually introduced, the accommodation in those colleges which can be admitted to

constituent rank will be insufficient for the number of undergraduate students who will present themselves. And the difficulty must be further increased by the fact that many graduates from mufassal colleges will come to Calcutta for M.A. and M.Sc. courses. We hold it to be in all ways desirable that students taking courses for the master's degree should be attached to colleges, and we hope that, so far as possible, the colleges will admit them. But pending the provision of a number of properly equipped constituent colleges adequate to meet all needs, we recommend that the University should establish an officer to be known as the Censor of non-collegiate graduate students, who should report to a special Board, including representatives of the colleges. It should be the duty of the Censor and of the Board (a) to exercise supervision over the residence of graduate students not attached to colleges, (b) to arrange for their admission to colleges wherever possible, and (c) to provide such tutorial guidance as they may require, the tutors being so far as possible drawn from among those university lecturers who are not attached to colleges.

66. In regard to methods of instruction in the Faculties of Arts and Science, we therefore recommend, not for immediate enactment, but for the consideration of the proper university authorities when duly constituted :—

- (a) *That in the case of students of constituent colleges of the Teaching University in Calcutta, the practice of requiring attendance at full courses of instruction within their own colleges in every subject of study be abandoned ; and that, instead, the college should be required to certify that the student had been under systematic direction, had worked well, and had attended a certain number (to be defined by regulation) of lectures given by 'appointed' or 'recognised' teachers, such lectures to be chosen by the student himself with the advice of, and under such regulations as may be imposed by, his college authorities.*
- (b) *That it should be the duty of every constituent college of the University to provide individual tutorial guidance for every student, and also to provide such lecture, class and other instruction, either in supplement to or in place of lectures organised by the University, as may seem necessary for the special needs of its students.*

- (c) *That every student of the University should be required to be a member of a college of the University, except graduates reading for the M. A. or M. Sc. degree who cannot find accommodation in colleges, and who should be placed under the control of a Censor and Board of non-collegiate graduate students,¹ and a group of tutors appointed by the University.*
- (d) *That it should be the duty of the University to organise the provision of courses of lectures, either by its own teachers or by appointed teachers of the colleges, which should be open to all students in constituent colleges, more particularly to honours students and also to non-collegiate graduate students; but that the colleges should provide such additional instruction as they may think necessary for their own students.*

NOTE.—The formal recommendations which have been appended to this and the two preceding sections deal with subjects not suitable for immediate legislation; they are intended rather for the guidance of the governing bodies of the University when constituted. In later sections, which will deal with the more formal aspects of the scheme of reorganisation, or with general questions not capable of embodiment in precise recommendations, we shall not find it necessary to follow this method.

VII.—*Advanced study and investigation.*

67. In the foregoing sections we have been concerned mainly with the organisation of undergraduate teaching; and an endeavour has been made to show that a new synthesis between the University and the colleges is necessary in order that the student may be enabled to get a sounder training than he now receives. We have suggested, also, that training for the degrees of M.A. and M.Sc. (to which, in the main, the name of post-graduate teaching has in Calcutta hitherto been applied) ought to be organised in the same way as undergraduate training, by co-operation between the University and the colleges.

68. But there is another, and vitally important, function of all universities, that of promoting, organising and carrying on independent investigation. It has been one of the greatest defects of the Indian universities that, until recent years, this essential function has been almost wholly disregarded, and, indeed, was

¹ Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad thinks that this proposal can only work if the number of post-graduate non-collegiate students is small.

practically precluded by the constitutions of the universities as they were before the Act of 1904. It has been perhaps the healthiest sign of the coming of a new life that quite recently all the universities, and none more than Calcutta, have begun to be conscious of this defect, and to endeavour to remedy it.

69. There is, however, a real and great danger which has attended the sudden awakening of interest in research, not in the Indian universities only, but also in England and America. This is the idea that teaching and research are quite separate and distinct functions, which may safely be left to different bodies of men, and looked after by separate organisations. Sometimes it takes the form of a notion that teaching is an inferior function, a necessary drudgery, which ought to be left to second-rate men. Such men, according to this idea, are good enough to give to the mass of ordinary students the routine training which they require; they also can give to the few select students the preliminary drill which they must have before they pass under the guidance of the nobler and more exalted scholars who are themselves engaged in original work, and who will help them to learn how to work for themselves.

70. This is, in our judgment, a mischievous doctrine; and if it becomes widely prevalent, it is likely to be hostile to the spirit which ought to animate a healthy university. It is one of the drawbacks of the sharp separation between the University and its colleges that it seems to justify this doctrine and to put it into practice: 'research' being regarded as something that is done by university professors and selected research students, while teaching is mainly carried on by the colleges.

71. 'Research' means neither more nor less than 'exploration.' Relatively few people, even in a university, can hope to carry their 'exploration' so far as to discover knowledge that is important and new to the whole world, and that helps to make the universe more intelligible. But everybody in a university, teachers and students alike, should be working in the spirit of the explorer, eagerly seeking out truth that is new to themselves, and that will help to make the universe more intelligible to them. And unless this spirit penetrates the whole work of a university, it will achieve little that is of value. A university is not fulfilling its duty as a centre of research if it merely hires a few men to carry on investigation in corners by themselves, however

handsomely they may be supplied with the materials for investigation. It is the spirit of research that is needed, and this spirit must be present in all serious work.

72. The student must be, in the greater part of his work,—a researcher, in this wide sense:—a man using all his powers, especially of imagination and of insight, to seek out truth. The implanting of a desire to use his powers in this way, and some training in the use of them, are the greatest benefits which a student can receive from his university. Unless he has been inspired by this desire, and has obtained something of this training, in his undergraduate days, he is not likely to achieve much success when he attempts the more difficult task of not merely finding out things that he himself does not know, but of finding out things that nobody else ever knew before. And the business of a university teacher is not to pump knowledge into his students, but above all to show them how to acquire knowledge for themselves, how to do 'independent work.'

73. There are two kinds of teaching which may legitimately be carried on in a university: teaching whose aim is knowledge and understanding; and teaching whose aim is dexterity or mastery of a technique. The latter is necessary. But it ought always to be subordinated to the former, even in technical subjects. Thus the arts student may need drill in the grammar of a foreign language; the engineering student may need to learn the use of the lathe; and there is rarely any element of 'research' in the work of either teacher or student in this kind of training. But unless these practical dexterities play a minor part in the student's training, it will be rather a narrowly technical than a liberal university training. The teacher who has to train the student in practical dexterities need not be a great scholar, or an 'explorer', though it is better that he should be. But the teacher whose work lies in the field of pure knowledge, and whose primary duty is to awaken in the student a genuine intellectual curiosity, is in quite a different case.

74. No teacher can fulfil this duty unless he is himself an explorer, filled with that eagerness to discover truth which it is his business somehow to communicate to his pupils. His exploring zeal may take different forms. He may very well be more concerned to put together all the available ascertained facts about

his subject of study, and to re-interpret them, than to devote his time to disclosing new facts. None the less, he will be an explorer or researcher. To take a famous example, when the young Bryce wrote his brilliant book on 'The Holy Roman Empire', his great achievement lay, not in discovering new facts, but putting the facts together, by hard thinking in such a way as to re-interpret a whole great period in the history of western civilisation. He was able to do so because he was filled by the desire to discover the truth; and his work was just as 'original,' and just as much 'research' as if he had deciphered documents which nobody had seen before.

75. In one way or the other, however, either as an eager discoverer of new facts, or as an eager explorer of unperceived relations between known facts, every university teacher whose business is not confined to the humbler duty of giving training in practical dexterities must be perpetually working upon and exploring the material of his subject, and must therefore, in the wide sense in which we have used the term, be a 'researcher'; otherwise he cannot perform his functions as a university teacher. For if he has ~~this~~ intellectual curiosity, it will be impossible for him not to exercise it; and if he has it not, it will be impossible for him to communicate it.

76. In order that the teachers of the University and its colleges may perform their functions rightly, it is therefore necessary that the great majority of them should be and should be recognised as men who have independent enquiries of their own to carry on. But this implies two things: they must have a reasonable amount of leisure; and they must have access to the materials of study, to books, journals, laboratories and so forth. It is the duty of the academic authorities in each case to see that they have reasonable leisure. But the colleges cannot in all cases meet the other needs. In that they must be helped by the University.

77. It is therefore not only right and proper, but it is indispensable for the right conduct of its ordinary teaching work, that the University should provide reasonable facilities for independent work, and should expect its teachers to take advantage of them. It is right and proper that the University should provide great libraries and great laboratories of research, with

great scholars to direct them. It is right and proper, further, that the University, if possible with the aid of Government, should provide scholarships or maintenance allowances for those advanced students who are not only fired by zeal for exploration, but show capacities which promise that they will explore to real purpose. But it is neither right nor proper that these things should be done as if they represented a special provision for a special demand, quite distinct from the rest of the University's work. The professor who confines himself to private investigations in his own laboratory may make great discoveries, but he does not discharge his full duty to his university, which is a *corporation* of learning. Just as a university teacher is not likely to be of much use unless he is inspired with a desire to discover truth, so the researcher is scarcely likely to be of the highest value to his university unless he is eager to communicate the truth he is discovering, and to convey to other people, and especially to young and ardent minds, something of his own passion.

78. Hence in the sphere of research, as in the sphere of undergraduate teaching, there must be a synthesis of university and college. The college teachers must be, in their own individual ways, researchers, and those among them who have achieved distinction in this respect must have their share of the noble work of training in the methods of discovering new knowledge the students whom they have already trained in the habit of reading and thinking for themselves. There must be, in this field as in others, organised co-operation between the University teachers and the college teachers. And the professors of the University must be teachers also—teachers not only of research students, but, in so far as their subjects and their gifts enable them, within reasonable limits teachers of undergraduates.

VIII.—The academic governance of the University.

79. Having analysed the kind of work, both in teaching and in research, that ought to go on in the University, we have next to consider what changes will be ultimately necessary in the formal relationship between the University and its colleges in order to make these new methods possible. This will involve some reference to the system of government of the University, in which large changes seem to us to be necessary. The changes which we propose

in this regard will be described in detail later.¹ Here our purpose is only to give such general explanations as will be necessary to make certain features of the future relation of the University and its colleges intelligible.

80. A university needs, for its proper governance, bodies of three kinds. In the first place, in order that it may be kept in touch with the community which it exists to serve, it needs a large body, widely representative of all the varied interests which are affected by university work, and therefore of public opinion at large. For this purpose we shall propose the institution of a body to be known as the Court, far more widely representative than the existing Senate. In the second place a great university which deals with many complex matters needs a small and efficient administrative body, including men with a wide knowledge of affairs, who will be especially responsible for finance and for the conduct of general policy. For this purpose we shall propose the creation of a small body to be known as the Executive Council, or (during the period of reconstruction, when it should be endowed with special powers) the Executive Commission.

81. But the most essential element in the structure of a teaching university is a strong body, or series of bodies, representing the teachers, and endowed with large independent powers in all purely academic matters. This must, indeed, be the pivot of the system in a genuine teaching university. Hitherto, in spite of the considerable proportion of teachers in the membership of the Senate, the voice of the teaching body, as such, has had relatively little weight in the real direction of the educational policy of Calcutta University, except in the recently established system of post-graduate classes: apart from this recent and encouraging experiment, many of the best teachers, and many of the colleges, have found themselves entirely excluded, year after year, from exercising any effective share in the determination of the academic policy which they have to carry into effect.

82. We regard it as essential that bodies effectively representative of the teachers should not only be constituted, but should enjoy a high degree of freedom and power. We shall therefore propose the constitution of an Academic Council, and under

¹ Chapter XXXVII "The Constitution of Calcutta University."

is of a series of Faculties and a number of Committees on Courses and Boards of Studies. The Academic Council will take over some of the powers now exercised by the Senate and the Syndicate, as well as by the existing Academic Councils for Post-Graduate Studies. All these bodies will consist almost exclusively of teachers. They will have a predominant voice in all matters affecting curricula and examinations, and a very great, though not decisive, influence in other matters affecting teaching.

83. In the membership of these bodies, and especially of the most important of them, the Academic Council, two main elements must predominate. The first of these must be the incorporated and constituent colleges of the University. Every college which takes its share in the co-operative teaching work described in the foregoing sections must be directly represented, as a college. The second element must consist of those teachers, whether attached more directly to the University or to its constituent colleges, who individually take part in this co-operative work. They cannot all be members, because they will be too numerous. But if, as we shall propose, they are classified in clearly defined grades, it will be possible to ensure that all these grades are effectively represented, and that all the most distinguished scholars included within the University are assured of the right of being consulted upon questions of academic policy.

84. But it is not enough to set up a series of Councils and Boards. There must be a chief engineer to see that all this mechanism works smoothly. This is the function of the Vice-Chancellor. Important as he is under the existing system, the Vice-Chancellor will have an even more exacting part to play under the new system, and still more in helping to make the adjustments which will be necessary before it can be brought into effective operation. He will be the main link between the teachers of the University and its colleges on the one hand, and the lay bodies and the general public on the other. He will be mainly responsible for the smooth working of the new relationship between the University and its colleges. Upon his personality may largely depend, for the time being, the success or failure of the system as a whole. His functions will be so important that in our judgment they will demand the whole of his time and thought; and we shall therefore propose that even should the complete

introduction of the new system be delayed he should be from the first a whole-time salaried officer, of dignity and status.

85. What has been written above forms only the outline of the reconstruction of the system of university government which we shall propose. But the intimate co-operation of university and colleges which is the most essential feature of the new organisation is necessarily dependent upon the working of the formal system of university government; and it has therefore seemed necessary, before we turn to analyse in detail the respective functions of the University and the colleges in the new system, that the reader should have in his mind some general idea of the proposed structure of university government.

IX.—The functions of the University.

86. Assuming that a system of instruction such as has been described above is to be brought gradually into operation, it is necessary next to consider what would be the functions of the University (as distinct from its constituent colleges) in the conduct of this system, how the common teaching staff of the University and its constituent colleges should be appointed, and what should be the conditions imposed upon the constituent colleges in order to enable them to perform efficiently their functions in such a system.

87. The University must not be a competitor with its colleges, but it ought in various ways to supplement their resources. In the first place, it is plainly necessary that the University should provide ample accommodation in a central building for a large part of the co-operative lecturing which our scheme contemplates. For though it is desirable that a large part of this teaching should be given in the colleges themselves, the distance of some of the colleges from the centre will often make it convenient that those university lecturers who are attached to the colleges, as well as those who are provided by the University, should give some of their lectures at headquarters; and we therefore recommend that a commodious building, designed for this purpose, and containing some rooms capable of accommodating large audiences, should be erected as soon as possible on the Fish Market site, which is available for the purpose.

88. Again, though every college ought to possess a good working library, no college can afford to maintain a library capable of

meeting all the needs of its teachers and students. To maintain such a library, on the amplest possible scale, and to make it as useful as it can be to all teachers and serious students, must therefore be one of the most important functions of the University. And the university librarian ought to be a functionary of great importance, ranking with university professors, and having a place in the supreme academic body of the University. Besides controlling his own library, the librarian might well perform other useful functions as well; such as that of giving advice to college librarians in regard to the selection and cataloguing of books, with a view to the prevention of needless waste by overlapping especially in the provision of expensive periodicals.

89. Again, although provision ought to be made in the colleges on as ample a scale as possible for the teaching of science, few colleges can afford to equip their laboratories on such a scale as to provide adequately for the needs of students doing advanced work. To maintain supplementary laboratories, where necessary, for the use of students in all its colleges must therefore be an important function of the University.

90. Again, there are many subjects in which no college could hope to provide instruction, and some in which, though a few of the colleges may be able to provide teaching, the amount and quality of the instruction provided may be insufficient for the needs of the body of students. In such subjects the University ought to provide instruction available for all; either by itself providing the salaries and making the appointments, or—which would be preferable wherever possible—by making a joint appointment or appointments by arrangement with one or more colleges.

91. We do not here refer to the need for the organisation of teaching in technological subjects, which ought to be met in part by the University, because this is dealt with elsewhere;¹ and because, though students in constituent colleges ought not to be precluded from attending such courses (or appropriate parts of them) without ceasing to be members of their colleges, the students of technological subjects would doubtless be, in the main, grouped in separate categories for instruction and training or (as in the cases of engineering and perhaps later of agriculture) even in colleges

¹ Chapters XLVI, XLVII and XLVIII.

of their own. Nor do we here speak of the development of advanced studies in oriental learning, which ought to be among the main tasks of a great Indian university; this subject also is dealt with elsewhere.¹

92. But it is eminently desirable that teaching should be provided, if or when funds become available, in various modern languages, in various Indian vernaculars, in such subjects as phonetics and statistics, in the rich field of Indian archæology, ethnology and anthropology, in the science, art and history of education, in the history of religions, and in special branches of science, such as bacteriology, astronomy and experimental psychology, which might be neglected if the provision of teaching in them was left exclusively to the colleges. The University has already been enabled during recent years to make a beginning in some of these fields, thanks to liberal grants from the Government of India and generous private benefactions. But much yet remains to be done.

93. Again, the University may usefully supplement and enrich the resources of the colleges even in the subjects of ordinary undergraduate work, by the appointment of professors of high distinction. It is desirable, indeed, that teachers appointed by the University should in general be prepared to take part in the work of the colleges: but there may well be occasional exceptions to this. In any case, as we have already urged, the most distinguished teachers should generally offer some instruction for undergraduates, even though the bulk of their time be occupied in the conduct and direction of research. While it may well happen that the services of men of great distinction can only be obtained on the condition of freedom from any heavy burden of routine work, the greatest scholars are the least likely to under-estimate the importance of undergraduate teaching. It is unwise to make a rigid rule regarding appointments of this character. But in general it would appear to be a sound principle that when a new post has to be created in the university staff in any subject included within the ordinary undergraduate curriculum, it should be created, whenever possible, in co-operation with a college.

94. One of the principal functions of the University in the scheme of teaching which we have outlined must be the organisa-

tion of the public instruction given in its name both by the appointment and payment of teachers of its own, and by the appointment or recognition of college teachers to give public instruction in the name of the University. We shall deal with these appointments and recognitions in the next section. In the meanwhile it would seem fair that when a college teacher is appointed to give lectures which will be open to the whole University, this ought to be done by arrangement with the college; and either the appointed teacher, or the college which lends his services, or both, should receive some payment from the university chest.

It would be the business of the University so to organise its teaching that in each subject the various aspects were represented without undue overlapping. We think that it would be impracticable to attempt a hard and fast delimitation of the spheres of the central university organisation and of the colleges respectively, such as is suggested by a proposal that the University should confine itself to applied, and the colleges to pure, science. We consider that there must be necessarily give and take. In starting a new subject, whether at the Presidency College, the University College of Science or other colleges, it may be desirable for the professor to deal at first both with its pure and its applied aspects. Thus in such a subject as zoology just started in Calcutta, it seems doubtful whether division into pure and applied zoology would be practicable at first, although economic zoology is a subject which should be developed. Again, in chemistry there is so much common ground between the pure and applied aspects that, while special provision should be made for certain branches of applied chemistry as we shall suggest in Chapter XLVIII, strict delimitation is impracticable. Physical chemistry, which is already taught both at the University College of Science and at Presidency College, has become of great importance in many branches of industry; but it would be wasteful to institute in the first instance a university chair of physical chemistry for students who are studying pure chemistry and another chair for those who are studying applied chemistry. Again, it will soon be necessary to create a department of bio-chemistry which, like physical chemistry, is important from the point of view both of pure and of applied science. In view of the fact that physiology is at present taught at Presidency College it would seem more natural to place the teaching of bio-chemistry at Presidency College

than at the University College of Science. Again, meteorology, which is a branch of applied physics, is of great and growing importance especially in connexion with aeronautics and it would seem natural to provide the teaching of the subject at St. Xavier's College where there is a meteorological observatory. If we look at the example of other universities we find that at the University of Glasgow applied geology is dealt with by the Central University organisation as well as by the Royal Technical College which is affiliated to the University. In Manchester metallurgy and applied chemistry are dealt with by the Central University organisation as well as by the municipal college of technology which in some of its aspects is part of the University. What is needed in Calcutta is that the new expenditure should be carefully planned so as to avoid unnecessary overlapping and that the resources of the University and its colleges as a whole should be used in the most economical way possible, all the factors of the situation being taken into account. Turning to fields other than science we may point out that in Arts the Committees of Selection which we shall propose would be well advised when recommending fresh appointments (in such a subject as history for instance) to take care that as far as possible the conjoint staffs of the University and its colleges should comprise teachers who have specialised in different periods and aspects of the subject. The honours and post-graduate students would thus find adequate guidance in every branch of their studies. In short, the co-ordination of university teaching over the vast field which it will cover is a matter which must be left for the future university authorities to work out in detail. But that detail must not be left to chance.

95. It would seem to follow that some financial contribution towards the cost of all this work should be made either by the students for whose advantage it is organised, or by the colleges in their behalf. The financial adjustments which will be necessitated¹ by the new system will be more fully analysed elsewhere.¹ In the meanwhile we suggest that every constituent college, that is to say, every college which takes a full share in the co-operative work described above, and which sends its students to the lectures organised by the University and its colleges in conjunction, should pay a small monthly fee—say one or two rupees—for every student on its rolls. The fee fund thus

¹ Chapter LL.

provided should be wholly used for payments to college teachers such as have been suggested in the last paragraph. In return for this payment, all university lectures for which they were qualified would be open to all students of these colleges.

96. The existing functions of the University in regard to its colleges are, first, the definition of curricula, second, the conduct of examinations, and, third, the exercise of general supervision and inspection. All these functions must continue; but all must be materially modified, at any rate as they affect the constituent colleges, by the new system of teaching.

97. In the first place, the definition of curricula will now be mainly in the hands of the teachers both of the University and of the colleges, and they will be more easily adapted to the special needs of various groups of students, and to the special capacities of various teachers, than has hitherto been the case. Moreover under the scheme of honours schools and pass groups which we have suggested, individual subjects will no longer be treated as if they were separated by water-tight compartments, but congruous and coherent groups of subjects will be dealt with as units.

98. In the second place, it should be more easily practicable under the new system to reduce materially the rigidity of existing examination methods, and to make the examination in some degree follow the teaching instead of dictating its character. In a teaching university of constituent colleges, moreover, it ought to be possible to take into account, in estimating a student's worth at the end of his course, not merely his performance under the artificial conditions of the examination room, but to some extent the character of the work he has done throughout his course. We do not here enter into any detail upon this subject, partly because the task of working out such methods falls properly to the academic bodies of the University, and, in view of the hold which the existing methods have upon the minds of both students and teachers, experiments should be cautiously and tentatively made; partly, also, because in another chapter¹ detailed suggestions will be made for the improvement of the existing methods of examination.

99. The third duty of the University in regard to its colleges is, by means of inspections and otherwise, to ensure that they

¹ Chapter XL

fulfil the conditions necessary for efficiency in the important work entrusted to them. What these conditions should be will be described in a later section : under the system of teaching suggested above, it is plain that they must be in many ways different in character from the conditions imposed under the system of affiliation. The relations of the University and its colleges will be so much more intimate, especially in teaching work, that some quite different method of regulating the teaching staffs of the colleges from that now employed must be devised. This will be more fully developed in the following sections. The inspection of the colleges, also, must take on, in the case of constituent colleges of the Teaching University, a very different colour from that which it now assumes. We do not suggest that inspection will be less necessary than it now is. But we think that it should be of a different kind and take place at less frequent intervals. We suggest that a visitation of all the constituent colleges by a group of persons appointed by the University, including if possible some scholars of distinction from other universities, might take place once in every three or five years. And we recommend that the report of the visitation should be presented in a single document, which would be circulated to all the colleges, and which would include not merely criticisms and recommendations for improvement, but also an analysis of any distinctive experiments in teaching methods, or in such matters as the development of corporate feeling among the students, which had been worked out in any of the colleges.

100. In short, under a new and happier system, the University ought not to stand merely in the relation of a task-master to its constituent colleges. It ought to assist and strengthen them. It can do this in part by giving guidance and advice, and by encouraging its best men to take a deeper interest in college work ; in part by providing instruction, such as the colleges could not themselves provide, which can be used by their students ; in part by giving recognition and emoluments to the best college teachers, and so helping the colleges to retain good men on their staffs.

X.—The teaching staff of the University.

101. It is of the first importance that teachers who give public instruction in the name of the University, and upon whose work, in a very high degree, the reputation of the University must

depend, should be men of real distinction. Not only so, but their status and dignity should be clearly marked by title, privilege and salary.

102. In other universities a clear distinction is drawn between teachers of various grades, according to their experience and responsibilities. Thus in England there are professors, associate and assistant professors, readers, lecturers, assistants; in Germany there are ordinary professors, extraordinary professors and *privat-dozenten*. Everywhere there is some attempt at an ordered hierarchy, whereby it is ensured that the men of greatest eminence and longest experience have greater powers and responsibilities than their fellows. In Bengal there exists, indeed, the gradation of the three services in Government colleges, which is admittedly unsatisfactory, and which the Public Services Commission proposed to recast.¹ But in other colleges there is, as a rule, very little effective gradation. The title of professor, in particular, is very loosely used. We regard it as important that this title should in future be used, at any rate formally and officially, only for those teachers upon whom it has been conferred by the University, and that it should be very sparingly conferred.

103. Since status is often dependent upon salary, we strongly urge that the title of professor should not, as a rule, be given to any teacher who does not receive for his university work (either from the University alone, or from the University and a college jointly, or from a college alone) a salary of at least Rs. 500 *per mensem*. We are far from suggesting that this figure should represent the normal rate of professorial salaries, but we think that it should be the minimum below which the professorial title should never be conferred. If the academic career is to compete for the services of able men with other careers in India, the normal salary should rather be 750 to 1,000 rupees *per mensem*; and it will be necessary sometimes to pay substantially more than this higher figure, especially when it is felt to be necessary—and it will be necessary for some time to come—to enlist in the service of Indian universities distinguished scholars from other countries. Some relaxation of the rule might possibly be allowed in the case of a missionary teacher of great distinction, seeing that these teachers often work for a merely nominal salary, or for none at all.

¹ Chapter XIII, paras. 20—28; and Public Services Commission Report, pages 93—121.

104. In a university organised as that of Calcutta will be organised if these suggestions are carried into effect, a ' professor ' cannot be treated, as in Dacca, as *ipso facto* the head of the department of studies which he represents, all the other teachers being under his direction ; because the collegiate method of organisation renders this impossible. But he should enjoy a recognised priority and leadership ; he should be a member *ex-officio* of the Faculty to which his subject is assigned, and of relevant Boards of Studies and Committees on Courses.

105. We further recommend that an additional academic title, that of reader, should also be reserved for teachers upon whom it is conferred by the University ; and that it should not be given to any teacher for whom a minimum salary of Rs. 400 *per mensem* is not provided, either by the University alone, or by the University and a college jointly. Other teachers, whether in the University or in the colleges, should be known as lecturers, tutors, demonstrators or assistants.

106. It will be apparent from what has already been said that the whole body of teachers engaged in university work in Calcutta would fall into one or other of three categories, according to the methods of their appointment and pay.

107. The first category would consist of teachers wholly paid by the University and appointed solely by it. This category would include some of the professors, readers, lecturers and assistants. But, in our judgment, the number of teachers, especially in the lower categories, appointed and paid wholly by the University, should be relatively small, except in subjects in which teaching is not provided by the colleges.

108. The second category would consist of teachers paid partly by the University and partly by the colleges, and either appointed under the terms of a joint agreement between the University and a college, or appointed in the first instance by a college as ordinary college teachers, and afterwards appointed by the University, by arrangement with the college, to give lectures which would be open to all students in constituent colleges. Such teachers might have the title of professor, reader, or lecturer, according to their salary or status. In our judgment the great majority of university (as distinct from college) teachers should fall into this category, that is, they should be paid partly by the University and partly by a college ; there should be in every college a certain number of

teachers of this type, taking part in college as well as in university work; men whose services the colleges would often be unable to retain but for the status, and the additional remuneration, provided by the University. In many cases—the cases of the lecturers—the additional remuneration provided by the University might be small; but there should always be some honorarium as a recognition of the fact that the instruction offered by the teacher concerned was thrown open to the students of all constituent colleges.

109. The third category would consist of teachers paid wholly by the colleges. A few of these might have the rank and title of university professors or readers: if, as is much to be desired, chairs or readerships on full salary were established, in a college, by endowment or otherwise, on condition that the holders should take part both in college teaching and in university lecturing. In these cases the appointment ought to be made on the recommendation of a committee including representatives of the college and the University. But the bulk of the teachers in this category would consist of college lecturers and tutors whose instruction was meant for students of the college alone, and not thrown open to the whole University; though there should be nothing to prevent the admission of students of other colleges by private arrangement between the college authorities.

110. In the appointment of lecturers whose work is confined to their own colleges, and indeed of all college teachers save those appointed by joint agreement between the University and the college, the governing body of the college should have complete freedom. This is essential as a means of preserving the character and individuality of the college. But in order that the responsibility of the University in regard to the character of the teaching given in its name may not be impaired, every lecturer in this category to whom it is proposed to entrust formal lecturing work should, after his appointment by the college, be submitted to the University for 'recognition' as a lecturer; and every teacher to whom it is proposed only to allot subsidiary work, such as that of demonstrating in a laboratory, should be submitted for 'recognition' as an assistant. Once 'recognition' was given to a teacher in either category, he should not (unless only provisionally recognised) require to apply for recognition afresh in that category if he should transfer his services to another college. We suggest that

the University should define the qualifications which it will always be ready to accept, for recognition in either category. This would not mean that teachers not possessing these qualifications would be denied recognition; but it would mean that a college would know, when appointing a teacher thus qualified, that 'recognition' would follow practically as a matter of course. Until a teacher was recognised, instruction given by him would not count towards the minimum required in paragraph 86 (a) above; nor would he be eligible to serve as a member of the academic bodies of the University.

111. It ought not, however, to be the business of the University, in dealing with applications for recognition, to enquire whether, in their judgment, a better appointment might have been made: their sole function should be to judge whether the person proposed for recognition is intellectually and otherwise qualified for his work. Even when a man with better formal academic qualifications is available, a college may often have good and sufficient reasons for appointing a particular man who may know the traditions of the college, or be useful in dealing with students of a particular type, and it ought to be quite free to appoint him. Under these circumstances we should anticipate that normally the whole body of teachers of a well-conducted college would be recognised. But it may sometimes happen that a college may wish to appoint a man, on personal knowledge, whose formal qualifications may well seem insufficient, or who may possess no regular academic qualifications at all. Such experiments might often be very fruitful. Yet the University could scarcely be expected to ratify them, without experience. The responsibility should rest upon the college, which would not be likely to regard it lightly especially as it would have to pay to any such teacher the same minimum salary as to his better qualified competitor.¹ We therefore propose that, in cases in which university recognition is withheld, the college appointment should not be invalidated. The instruction given by the lecturer would not, indeed, be counted towards any requirements laid down for the attendance of students; but as, under the scheme already proposed, the student would not be required to attend courses by 'appointed' or 'recognised' lecturers in all parts of his work, there would still be abundant work for the

¹ Para. 129 below.

unrecognised lecturer. But the proportion of unrecognised teachers on the staff of a college ought to be low. Should it ever reach so high a proportion as one-fourth, we consider that this ought to be regarded as justifying a withdrawal of constituent privileges from the college; and that the Court should then be asked to consider whether the Statute¹ conferring constituent privileges upon the college ought not to be rescinded. Under the system thus proposed the teachers of a college might thus fall into four classes: (1) 'appointed' teachers partly paid by the University, some of whose courses were open to the whole University; (2) 'recognised' lecturers; (3) 'recognised' assistants; (4) 'unrecognised' teachers; all the last three being appointed and paid wholly by the college. This system seems to us to provide the best means of securing freedom to the college in making its appointments, of guarding against sectarian and other prejudices, and at the same time of enabling the University to utilise the services of the best college teachers for common purposes, and to control effectively the character of the teaching given in its name, without crippling the colleges as a refusal or withdrawal of affiliation would do under the present system.

XI.—Methods of appointment.

112. Since the whole character of a university's work depends upon the ability and character of its teachers, there is no aspect of university organisation more vitally important than the methods by which its teachers are appointed. The difficulty and responsibility of making teaching appointments is felt in all universities. If once the suspicion gets abroad, whether justly or unjustly, that appointments are liable to be affected by personal influence, by intrigue, by sectarian or political jealousies, or, in short, by any motive whatsoever except the desire to get the best man, not only does the reputation of the University sink in the learned world, and the difficulty of getting good men increase, but the atmosphere of the University itself is apt to be vitiated.

113. These difficulties, felt in a greater or less degree in all universities, are especially great in India, where racial, religious and political differences readily give rise to distrust. No Indian province can afford to draw its teachers wholly from among its own citizens; it would be disastrous, indeed, to the intellectual

¹ Chapter XXXVII, para. 73 (ii).

life of India as a whole if this were attempted. Yet inter-provincial rivalries are keen, and the academic world of one province has no such intimate knowledge of the academic world of other provinces as is common in the West. To all this must be added the fact that India still needs to draw teachers from other countries (not from Britain alone, though naturally from Britain chiefly), especially in those modern sciences which she has only begun to develop, but also in other subjects. For these reasons it is of the first importance that the mode in which appointments are made should be such as to be beyond the charge that it is influenced by personal, racial or sectarian feeling, or in any way dominated by secret forces, of whatsoever kind; while at the same time it ought to be ensured that those who make or recommend the appointment have sufficient knowledge to be able to survey the whole available field, and to ensure the selection of the best possible man.

114. We have given much thought to this problem, as it affects all the grades and types of appointments enumerated in the foregoing paragraphs; and it has seemed to us necessary to devise special methods of selection in order that Calcutta may be enabled to achieve the status in the learned world which ought to be hers, by obtaining the services of the best possible staff. The methods to be adopted must necessarily vary with different kinds of appointments. But the general principle which has governed our recommendations is that there should be a special appointing or recommending body in each case; and that it should be carefully constituted so as to ensure the representation (*a*) of special knowledge of the subject concerned, (*b*) of the needs and interests of the University, (*c*) of the point of view of Government, which finds the money for a large proportion of the posts to which appointments have to be made, (*d*) of the principal communities which the University exists to serve, and (*e*) of the college, when a college is specially concerned in the appointment.

115. In the case of professors and readers wholly paid out of university funds, we recommend that the special selection committee should include the Vice-Chancellor; one or two representatives of the Executive Council of the University; two representatives of the Academic Council, to be chosen on the ground of their special knowledge of, or interest in, the subject of the chair or readership; and a high official appointed

by the Chancellor. To these should be added—and this is perhaps the most vitally important part of the proposal—three persons of eminent authority in the subject, who should not be salaried officers of the University. They should be appointed by the Chancellor, who should have the assistance of a list of suitable persons forwarded to him by the Academic Council, though his choice should not be restricted to this list. These three outside experts might very well be professors in other Indian universities or distinguished scholars who happened to be in India; they would be unaffected by any conflicting currents of opinion which might exist in the University; they would have no personal interests to serve; and they might be expected to have a knowledge of the field of suitable candidates both in other parts of India and elsewhere. A very similar device has been successfully adopted in the University of London. Should the Committee when constituted not include at least one Hindu and one Musalman, the Chancellor should be asked to nominate an additional member or members to represent the omitted interests. The quorum of these committees should be high.¹ We suggest that the recommendation of this selection committee should be communicated in confidence² to the Academic Council, whose comments, if any, should be reported by the Vice-Chancellor to the selection committee, and also to the Executive Council. The final appointment should normally rest with the Executive Council, which should, however, be precluded from appointing any person not recommended as a suitable candidate by a duly appointed selection committee. In the event of a deadlock, the final decision should rest with the Chancellor. In a later part of this chapter³ we shall propose a modification of this method for use in certain special cases.

116. In any case in which the professorship or readership is attached to a particular college, and maintained either out of

¹ In the corresponding committees in the University of London the quorum is seven out of a membership of nine.

² Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad and Dr. Gregory think that the proposed communication to the Academic Council would be in the first place undesirable, because, owing to the large number of this body, it could not be kept confidential, and in the second place unnecessary, because the Academic Council would be adequately represented upon the Selection Committees.

³ See paras. 167-169.

college funds or by joint agreement between the University and a college—and we hope that such cases would be numerous—the college should have the power to appoint two or more representatives to the selection committee. And, since it would be extremely undesirable that a man of whom the college disapproved should be forced upon it, the college should have the right of refusing to accept the nomination put forward on the recommendation of the Selection Committee. Should this lead to a deadlock, the appointment would, of course, not be made, and the post would lapse or be suspended. We cannot think that such a result would frequently happen, since both sides would be anxious to avoid it; the fear that it might happen would, however, ensure that the feelings of the college, as expressed by its representatives, were fully considered.

117. In our judgment the title of professor or reader should as a rule only be conferred when a post has been created either by the University, or by agreement between the University and a college. But we recognise that there might—and in the first stages of reconstruction probably would—be instances in which it would be desirable to confer one of these titles on existing college teachers. In these cases we suggest that the governing body of the college should make application to the Executive Council of the University; and that the title should be conferred only if specific teaching duties were attached to it, if some remuneration were made by the University, and if a selection committee, comprising the Vice-Chancellor with three independent experts, reported that the qualifications of the teacher concerned would be sufficient to justify his appointment if he were a candidate for a chair or readership under the conditions described above.

118. In the case of teachers holding the less conspicuous office of lecturer, and empowered to give instruction in the name of the University to all qualified students, we do not think that so elaborate a method of appointment would be practicable. But we feel it to be essential, in the first place, that the best expert opinion in the University should be consulted before such appointments are made, and, in the second place, that the claims of all college teachers should be fairly considered. As has been already suggested, in all such cases, when a college teacher is being appointed to devote part of his time to giving instruction which will be open

to all qualified students, some payment should be made by the University either to the teacher or to his college. We suggest that for each subject a selection committee of not more than nine members, with a high quorum, should be appointed by the Academic Council, the Vice-Chancellor and the Dean of the Faculty concerned to be in every case members of these Committees, while the Executive Council should also be empowered to appoint a member. Other members of the Committees might be suggested to the Academic Council by the Boards of Studies concerned; but no person who is offering himself as a candidate for any appointment should be permitted to take part in the discussion of such an appointment. On every such Committee there should be at least one Hindu and one Musalman member, and the Vice-Chancellor should be empowered to appoint an additional member or members for this purpose, should it be necessary. Recommendations made by these Committees of Selection should be forwarded to the Academic Council, and by them submitted, with their own comments, for final decision to the Executive Council. A similar method ought, in our judgment, to be adopted in regard to the 'recognition' of college lecturers.

119. The methods here described may seem to be elaborate; but too much care cannot be taken in the appointment of university teachers. The working of the system may also seem to be only partially intelligible without a fuller description of the proposed governing bodies of the University, which will be dealt with in a later chapter. But some description of the methods which are suggested for organising the common teaching-staff of the University and its colleges is essential to the understanding of the scheme of relationship between the University and its colleges to which we have next to turn. In the meantime, it may be enough to say that the object of all these provisions is to ensure that all the best available teaching-strength is placed at the disposal of the student-body; to ensure also that every college may be encouraged to appoint the best possible men upon its staff, in order that they may obtain full status and recognition from the University.

120. The greatest danger of such a system is the danger that particular colleges may be given ground for believing that they are unfairly treated, and that they are crippled and handicapped in their work by the denial of equal opportunities for their teachers.

We have endeavoured to guard against this danger by the provision¹ that colleges and special communities shall have a right of appeal to the Chancellor in any such case. But almost equally great is the danger that, through mere complaisance, men not really qualified for such positions may be too readily given what ought to be the high distinctions of university professorships, readerships and lectureships. Against these dangers it is impossible to provide complete safeguards, by even the most elaborate regulations. The only ultimate safeguard will be a determination on the part of the governing bodies of the University to maintain a high standard, and at the same time to do absolute justice as between the claims of various colleges. If this resolve is lacking, the University will discredit itself and impoverish its work.

XII.—The requirements of constituent colleges.

121. It has already been noted, and indeed it must be obvious, that the requirements to be made upon colleges which propose to take a part in a co-operative system of teaching such as we have described must necessarily, in many particulars, differ widely from those which were held to be necessary under the affiliating system, whereunder every college was normally responsible for the whole of the instruction given to its students. In the following paragraphs we shall endeavour to analyse these requirements, premising that they apply only to those colleges which are admitted to constituent rank. Other colleges, unable at first to fulfil these requirements, will have to be otherwise dealt with.

122. We must begin by assuming that the severance of students of the intermediate grade, which is one of the fundamental elements in our proposals, will be carried out at the earliest possible date by all colleges which desire to enjoy constituent rank in the Teaching University. In some colleges it may be necessary, for a number of years, to maintain the intermediate classes on something like their present basis, though they will pass under the control of the Secondary and Intermediate Board when constituted. But this ought not to be permitted in the case of constituent colleges in the co-operative Teaching University; they must be freed from school-work at the earliest possible

¹ Chapter XXXVII, para. 90, and Chapter I, para. 20.

moment; and until this is done the new system cannot fully come into being.

123. At the same time, it will not be possible for any college merely to turn its intermediate students into the street. It is therefore necessary to provide for a transitional period even in the case of the best colleges. To meet this difficulty, we recommend either that the complete organisation of the new university system should be postponed until an adequate number of intermediate colleges have been organised; or, if it is decided to carry out at once the whole scheme of reorganisation, that no college shall be recognised as a constituent college of the University unless it undertakes either to abandon intermediate classes altogether, or to place them under a distinct organisation and in a separate building. The date at which this change should be made would have to be fixed in view of the progress made by the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education in dealing with the intermediate problem. It would have to be fixed by a body with special powers; and for this among other reasons we shall recommend the establishment of an Executive Commission for the period of reconstruction. In the meantime, the college should be required to provide for the intermediate classes, so long as they continue, a distinct and separate staff, whose members would not be eligible in respect of this work either for 'appointment' or for 'recognition' as university teachers, and would not count towards the number of teachers which the college was required to provide for its university work.

124. The first problem which faces us is the problem of the size of colleges: this is a very important factor in regard to the organisation of college life, and the development of corporate spirit. A very small college does not give sufficient play to varieties of type; in a very large college the individual becomes lost. We consider that for many purposes 200 to 300 is the best size for a college; but a college of this size is expensive to run. On the other hand, when its numbers go beyond 800 a college is apt to become unmanageable. But we recognise that under the existing conditions in Calcutta it would be Utopian to suggest even 800 as a maximum. We therefore recommend that, excluding students in the intermediate stage, 1,000 should be fixed as the maximum number of students to be admitted to any college which desires to enjoy the full

privileges of a constituent college. On this basis 4,500 post-intermediate students (whose numbers will be increased by 50 *per cent.* as soon as the three years' course is made compulsory for all undergraduates) would require from six to eight colleges for their accommodation.

125. The most important of the requirements must obviously be those which relate to the teaching staff of the college. Since, under the proposed new system, the colleges will not need to provide the whole of the lecture-instruction required by its students, but will, on the other hand, be expected to provide individual tutorial guidance for every student, the number of the staff will not be determined primarily in relation to the number of subjects taught (as is the case under the affiliating system) but mainly in relation to the number of students. Every college, therefore, must be required to maintain a staff whose numbers will bear a certain proportion to the number of its students ; and the main factor in determining this proportion will be the number of students who can be properly looked after by a teacher in addition to his lecturing work. We recommend that the minimum proportion should be fixed from time to time by the University. In our judgment a reasonable proportion would be one teacher to every fifteen or twenty students. But we recognise that under existing conditions this proportion would be in practice unattainable : it is at present attained by only four Government colleges and two Missionary colleges in all Bengal. We therefore suggest that the proportion of one to twenty-five should be fixed to begin with. This would imply that a college with 1,000 students would have to have not less than 40 teachers, all grades included.

126. Yet more important than the number of the teachers must be their quality. The University has, under the affiliating system, tried to secure that college teachers are men of sound attainments by demanding, so far as practicable, certain minimum academic qualifications, such as a first or second class in the M. A. examination. But any such criterion as this is, by itself, unsatisfactory, though in the absence of other evidence it must naturally carry great weight. In no university do all the brightest minds necessarily find a place in the first class, and the most inspiring teacher or investigator may be a man with relatively poor academic

qualifications.¹ Moreover this criterion wholly breaks down when the claims of teachers educated in other countries, in England or America, have to be equated with those of Calcutta graduates.

127. The only satisfactory way of getting a good staff is to give the teachers good pay, good prospects, and a reasonable security of tenure, and to take care that not only the performance of a candidate in an examination room, possibly many years before, but the whole of his qualifications as a teacher, are duly weighed. We therefore recommend that the University should avoid imposing over-rigid conditions regarding the academic qualifications of the teachers to be appointed by the colleges, but should insist upon reasonable conditions of tenure, trusting the colleges to get the best possible value for their money, and to take care in the selection of men who will have to remain in their service for substantial periods.

128. We also recommend that the University should not make rigid stipulations, such as are now made, regarding the number of teachers to be appointed in each subject, but should leave to the college the responsibility for distributing the total number of its teachers among the various subjects. We make these recommendations because we believe it to be often desirable, especially in the more informal work of college teaching, that subjects should not be arbitrarily severed from one another; such subjects as history, economics, political science and geography often gain from being taken together, and a teacher of philosophy may play an invaluable part in the teaching of literature. But we strongly urge that every college should be required to appoint a certain number of responsible heads of departments, or chief teachers, who would draw substantial salaries. Furthermore, in order that the constituent colleges may be able to play their full part in the co-operative system we have defined, it is essential that they should have a number of teachers on their staffs who would deserve to be given the rank of 'appointed' teachers of the University, and who would be capable of taking part in all grades of work, pass, honours and post-graduate.

¹ Thus John Richard Green, the historian, took a pass degree at Oxford, Darwin took a poor degree at Cambridge, Faraday never went to a university.

129. In regard to the conditions of tenure and salary which ought to be secured for the teachers in constituent colleges, we recommend :—

- (a) that no whole-time teacher should be paid a less salary than Rs. 125 *per mensem* ; and we consider that this minimum might very properly be raised by the University at a later date if it seemed practicable to do so ;
- (b) that the heads of departments in which there is more than one teacher should in no case be paid less than Rs. 300 *per mensem* ; both in regard to this and to the preceding clause, however, it ought to be noted that missionary teachers who receive a merely nominal salary, or none at all, should be treated as if they were paid the salaries appropriate to the posts which they hold ;
- (c) that, so far as possible, there should be graded rates of increment in the more important teaching posts ;
- (d) that no teacher should be appointed for a shorter term than three full years, save in the case of temporary appointments, or of the appointment of a young teacher without experience, who might be appointed for a probationary period of one year ; in every case the teacher to have the right of resigning within this term, but the college to be precluded from dismissing him except for gross neglect of duty or serious misconduct ;
- (e) that not more than one-fifth of the required staff should be at any time engaged on temporary or probationary appointments ;
- (f) that every teacher on his appointment should receive a written contract stating the conditions of his appointment and the salary to be paid ; a copy of every contract to be, at the same time, lodged with the University ;
- (g) that the college should agree to accept the decision of the university tribunal which will be described later,¹ in any dispute regarding the fulfilment of its contract with a teacher in respect of his salary or the conditions of his appointment.

¹ Chapter XXXVII, para. 89.

130. Next in importance after the conditions affecting the teaching staff are the conditions which ought to be imposed in regard to equipment and accommodation. Here again, for a constituent college in a co-operative teaching university, something quite different is required from what may suffice at present in the case of an affiliated college, where the bare accommodation for lectures, and, in science, for practical work, seems often to be almost all that is provided. The buildings of the college must not be a 'mere barrack of lecture-rooms;' though they may be simple and unpretentious, they must form a suitable home for a living society of teachers and students. There must not only be lecture-rooms, there must be common-rooms sufficient for the number of students enrolled by the college. Still more important, there must be small rooms suitable for small classes, and private rooms in which the teachers can meet their students individually or in little groups for tutorial purposes. There must be a reasonably good working library, with sufficient seating accommodation, not a mere *pro formâ* library; and where the college undertakes to provide instruction in science, there must be reasonably efficient laboratories. And, not least, the buildings must be clean, in good repair and sanitary. These are not very exacting conditions for what one of our correspondents has described as 'halls of learning,' but they are now far from being always satisfied. They represent the minimum which should be exacted from constituent colleges of a great teaching university.

131. One of the primary duties of a properly conducted college is to see that its students live in reasonably healthy conditions. We have already seen¹ how gravely this obligation is disregarded, under the pressure of existing conditions, in some of the existing colleges. But the constituent colleges of the Teaching University are not to be mere purveyors of instruction for examinations; they are to be living societies, real training-places for men; and they cannot be permitted to disregard these obligations. We recommend, therefore, that every constituent college should be held responsible for the conditions under which its students live; the conditions which seem to be necessary for this purpose will be more fully defined in a later chapter.²

¹ Chapter XIX.

² Chapter XXXIX.

132. Finally, the University ought to exact from its constituent colleges certain clear and definite conditions regarding their organisation and government. In the first place every college ought to be a public educational institution whose property is securely held, under an approved trust-deed, for the purposes of Higher education, and whose whole revenues are devoted to its own purposes, and are neither directly nor indirectly used for, or transferable to, private advantage. In the second place, it ought to have a properly constituted governing body, on which the University should have one or more representatives, and the teachers of the college at least two elected representatives in addition to the Principal. In some cases, *e.g.*, in missionary or other religious institutions, it may well be impossible that university representatives should be parties to all the business of the controlling organisation. But in these cases the university representatives should be debarred from voting on religious matters; or, alternatively, a special governing body should be constituted to deal with the purely academic affairs of the college, and with financial matters connected with them, leaving the spiritual affairs of the institution to be otherwise controlled. In the third place, every constituent college ought to have a Teachers' Council, of which all the senior teachers, at least, ought to be members. This body should meet at frequent and regular intervals to discuss the needs and progress of the students, and to make recommendations for the improvement of the work of the college and its management in general; and the recommendations of this body should be regularly laid before the Governing Body and considered by them.

133. Such, in our judgment, are the minimum conditions which ought to be imposed upon colleges undertaking to play the part in a co-operative teaching university which we have attributed to them in this chapter. We recognise that some of the Calcutta colleges will find difficulty in meeting them; and we shall in a later section describe the special and temporary arrangements which it seems to us necessary to make in order to meet the needs of these colleges. But we hope that several of the colleges will be able to meet them from the first. And we shall recommend, in the chapter on finance,¹ that substantial grants

¹ Chapter LI.

should be given for the purpose of helping those colleges which make sincere and genuine efforts to meet these conditions, especially if they have done their best to obtain financial aid from private benefactors in order to improve their staff and equipment.

134. The privileges which colleges fulfilling these conditions would enjoy, should, we recommend, be real and substantial. In the first place their students should be entitled, on the authorisation of the college authorities, to attend without special fee all lectures given by university lecturers, or by any college teachers appointed for this purpose by the University.¹ In the second place every constituent college, as such, should be represented upon the appropriate governing bodies of the University. In the third place their teachers would be eligible to be appointed as professors, readers or lecturers for the University, without sacrificing their positions as college teachers; they would also be eligible as members of the academic bodies of the University, and as 'internal' examiners of the Teaching University. In short, these colleges would be fully members of, and partners in, the University; not, as now, institutions existing to prepare students for the examinations of a body in which they have, as a matter of right and certainty, no definite share.

135. So long as the conditions imposed by the University are fulfilled, the constituent college ought to be entirely autonomous in all its internal affairs. This is especially important in regard to that part of a student's training which is not, and cannot be, included in formal curricula, but for which a well-organised college ought to feel itself responsible—his religious and moral training. What makes such training valuable is conviction in those who impart it; the teaching of a sincere and honest man can be an inspiration even to those who do not share, and will never share, his formal beliefs. In this has lain much of the success of missionary colleges in India. In the sphere of religious and moral training, therefore, the fullest freedom must be left to every college, within the limits of its own constitution. Only so can it be possible for a college to create that distinctive atmosphere and tradition which may be one of the most potent forces in shaping the minds of its pupils.

¹ This sentence is to be read in the light of para. 95 above.

136. It is essential to the maintenance of the autonomy of the colleges, and of their influence over their students, that the authorities of every college, and especially its principal, should have full disciplinary control over its students, including, in the last resort, the power of expulsion; and with these powers the University should normally have no right of interference. No university authority should have the right to interfere with or annul the disciplinary rules of a college, or to override the decisions of the college authorities in this regard. Further, the authority of the principal must extend over the behaviour of his students not only when they are within the precincts of the college or its hostels but also outside; and he must have full power to maintain discipline over students from other colleges who may be visiting, or attending lectures in, the college. In the same way the university authorities, acting through the Vice-Chancellor, must have full power to maintain discipline within the university buildings, or in any institution under the direct management of the University; and they must also have some authority, co-ordinate with that of the college principals, over the behaviour of all students of the University in public places and on public occasions.

137. But obviously, in a system such as we have described, wherein college students will be constantly attending lectures in other colleges or in university buildings, there must occasionally arise conflicts of jurisdiction. To deal with such cases, we recommend that the Academic Council should appoint a standing Committee of Discipline, which would naturally include some heads of colleges, and of which the Vice-Chancellor should be Chairman. In our judgment a very special responsibility for questions of general discipline should rest upon the Vice-Chancellor, as it should rest, in college affairs, upon the principal; and we therefore recommend that the Committee of Discipline should in the main be advisory to the Vice-Chancellor, and should usually only deal with questions referred to it by him, or by the principal of a college. If the judgment of the Vice-Chancellor, on any question of discipline, should differ from that of the Committee, the Vice-Chancellor should report the matter to the Academic Council, and, if the Academic Council so decides, also to the Executive Council.

138. To this Committee should be referred any disputes or conflicts of authority between the principals of two or more colleges, or between the University and one or more principals of colleges; for example, when a principal challenges the exclusion of one of his students from lectures given in another college or in the university buildings. But the decision of the Vice-Chancellor, after consulting the Committee, should be final. If a student is dismissed from a college, the fact should be at once reported by the principal to the Vice-Chancellor, who should communicate the matter in confidence to the principals of other colleges. No other college should normally admit the student unless the principal of the college from which he has been expelled gives his assent; and an adverse decision by the principal on such a point should not be overridden unless the Academic Council should so decide after a report from the Committee of Discipline. In the same way, a student expelled from a college should normally be precluded *ipso facto* (except by the permission of the principal of the college and the Vice-Chancellor) from attending university lectures either in the university buildings, or in another college, or in an institution managed by the University; but it should be competent for the Vice-Chancellor, with the advice of the Committee of Discipline, to permit the student in special cases to attend university lectures.

139. The extreme disciplinary measure of expunging the name of a student from the roll of the University should be vested in the Executive Council, on a report from the Academic Council after consideration of the judgment of the Committee of Discipline.

140. There is one aspect in which, for the sake of Government, a certain restriction ought to be placed upon the freedom of action of the college. Several of the colleges already receive grants-in-aid from Government; others may be anxious to do so, in order that they may be enabled to meet the new demands which we have outlined; and at the same time the University is sure to put forward large demands, especially for assistance in the development of technological education. It is important that all these demands should be laid before Government at the same time, and in a co-ordinated form; important also that they should be considered alongside of the parallel

demands for assistance that will come from mufassal centres and from the women's colleges. We therefore recommend that all requests for additional aid from Government, and all statements in support thereof, which are put forward by any college, should in general be forwarded through the Executive Council or the University, which should be bound to submit them to Government without undue delay, at the same time as any requests on behalf of the University itself; but should be entitled to append to them any comments which might seem to it appropriate. Small urgent applications might go direct, to avoid undue delay; but every such application should be reported to the Executive Council when made.

XIII.—Temporarily affiliated colleges.

141. The conditions which we have described above seem to us to represent the minimum necessary if the students of Calcutta University are to be given the opportunity of a sound and adequate university training. If the synthesis of university and colleges which we have defined is to be carried into effect, it is essential that there should exist in Calcutta, within a reasonable time, a sufficient number of colleges, equipped on this scale, to accommodate the whole body of students above the intermediate stage. Failing this, the synthesis must break down. Some relief will no doubt be afforded by the foundation of the new University at Dacca, and by the development of efficient centres of training in the mufassal, to be known as university colleges, which we recommend in Chapter XXXV; but that will not be enough. It is necessary to recognise that many of the colleges in Calcutta, as they now are, will be quite unable to satisfy the conditions laid down above; and these colleges now include some thousands of students, who are being given a kind of training quite unworthy of the name of university education. It is essential that the needs of these students should be met. They can only be met either, by the organisation of new colleges equipped on an adequate basis, or by the improvement and development of some or all of the existing colleges, or by a combination of both methods. But this cannot be done in a moment, even if unlimited funds were available. It is therefore necessary either that a preliminary period should be allowed before the new system comes into operation

during which new colleges could be established, and time and help afforded to the existing colleges to bring themselves up to the mark ; or, if the new system is to be immediately brought into operation, that some arrangement should be made whereby those colleges which are not immediately able to satisfy the conditions for constituent rank may be enabled to carry on their work, on something like the present basis, during such period as may be necessary to enable those of them which can do so to improve and strengthen their resources, and also to enable new colleges to be established on an adequate basis.

142. But, if the second of the two alternatives suggested above is adopted, it is essential that any such arrangement should not be of such a kind as to compromise the new system. Any proposal to relax or suspend the conditions we have laid down, which represent the very minimum consistent with efficiency, on the plea of leniency to the colleges which cannot meet these conditions, would be disastrous to the whole scheme of reconstruction. Some of the colleges can meet the required conditions : the new system must start with them. It would be an injustice, not merely to these stronger colleges, but to thousands of students, to refuse to make a practicable and useful advance merely because some of the other colleges are not ready to join in it. It would be sacrificing public to private interests. We therefore conceive it to be necessary to devise some means whereby the colleges which are not at first able to attain constituent rank may be licensed to carry on their work, on such terms as to ensure that their students receive at least as good a training as they now do, while at the same time affording to these colleges a challenge and stimulus to adjust themselves to the new conditions, and either to develop their resources so that they may be admitted to the full partnership of the Teaching University, or to reorganise themselves and concentrate their strength upon intermediate work of the new pattern. For either of these purposes we urge that the colleges should receive generous aid and encouragement both from Government and from the University.

143. We therefore recommend that, if the new system is brought into operation before many of the colleges are ready to take part in it, the existing system of affiliation, with certain modifications,

should for a time be maintained for the purposes of those colleges in the city of Calcutta which are not able to fulfil the conditions of recognition as constituent colleges. But it should be clearly laid down, in the first place, that no new college will be recognised on this basis after the new system has been brought into operation; in the second place, that any such recognition which may be given to a new college between the passing of the Act and the date at which it comes into full operation (should that date be postponed) should be given only on a guarantee that the college will be able to fulfil the conditions laid down for constituent rank; and, in the third place, that this retention of the affiliating system, within the city of Calcutta, is in any case intended only as a temporary measure to meet an emergency. For that reason we recommend that the colleges in this category should be described as 'temporarily affiliated colleges'; that the conditions of their affiliation should be revised as soon as practicable after the passing of the Act; and that affiliation should be granted to them only for a definite period of years—we suggest five years. If, on the expiry of this term, the provision of accommodation in properly organised constituent colleges was still insufficient, the affiliation might be renewed for a further short period, at the discretion of the Executive Commission or Council, and with such a revision of the conditions of affiliation as the Commission or Council might consider necessary. It is our hope that the colleges, or some of them, would use this period to equip themselves for constituent rank, appealing to private generosity as well as to public funds, and helped and guided in every possible way by the University. In particular, we hope that the university would be able to help these colleges to rise to the higher rank by sharing the cost of providing additional teachers. The interests of all students of these colleges (if they were disaffiliated) should, of course, be carefully safeguarded.

144. If the new system is immediately brought into operation, we recommend that the following conditions should be imposed upon the temporarily affiliated colleges; if the introduction of the new system is postponed, these represent the minimum conditions which ought at once to be imposed upon all colleges, while at the same time every endeavour should be made, by Government and by the university authorities, to stimulate and help the colleges to fulfil the more

exacting conditions which will ultimately be required for admission to constituent rank.

- (i) A reasonable limitation should be placed upon the number of students whom a college might admit.
- (ii) It should be imposed as a condition of affiliation that each college was genuinely a public educational institution, the whole of whose funds were available for its own educational purposes, and fully under the control of its governing body; and that this governing body was properly constituted and included, in addition to the principal, at least two representatives of the teachers, and at least one representative of the University.
- (iii) Certain reasonable conditions in regard to accommodation and teaching resources should be laid down.
- (iv) In regard to the appointment of teachers, the existing regulations might be maintained, the college being bound to report the qualifications of every teacher, as appointed, to the University, but the responsibility for the appointment remaining with the college.
- (v) While it would be impracticable to require long-term appointments for the teachers, in view of the possibility that the position of the college might be altered, it should be forbidden to appoint a full-time teacher for a less period than one full calendar year, except in the case of temporary appointments, and a minimum salary of (say) Rs. 100 *per mensem* should be fixed. It should also be laid down that there must be a responsible head of each department of studies in which the college was affiliated, and that such heads of departments should be paid at least Rs. 250 *per mensem*.

145. The authorities of a temporarily affiliated college should be free to choose whether their students should follow the same courses and take the same examinations as the students in the constituent colleges of the Teaching University, or whether they should take the examinations of the Mufassal Board.¹ But these alternatives should be mutually exclusive; no college should be permitted to present its candidates partly for one set of examina-

¹ Chapter XXXV. paras. 38-41.

tions and partly for the other. Where the mufassal examinations were chosen, it should be clearly understood¹ that the college would not be represented on the Mufassal Board. Where the Calcutta examinations were chosen, the college should only be permitted to present students for examination in those pass groups in which, in the opinion of the Executive Commission or Council, after report from the Academic Council, the staff of the college was held to be strong enough. Should it be found that the conditions defined for the Teaching University in any subject or group of subjects were such that the resources of the temporarily affiliated colleges were unable to meet them, it should be open to these colleges to petition the Executive Commission or Committee that in particular subjects where these difficulties were felt, special papers should be set for, or other relief given to, their students. We recommend that the names of successful candidates in university examinations from temporarily affiliated colleges should be issued in a separate list.

146. It must be obvious that teachers in temporarily affiliated colleges could not enjoy the privileges of teachers in constituent colleges; since their work would normally be limited to their own colleges, while many of the teachers in constituent colleges would be regular participators in an organised system of co-operation. In certain cases, no doubt, the University might find it desirable to engage some of these teachers as part-time lecturers to university students, at a special salary. In that capacity they would be eligible as members of the Academic Council, Faculties and other academic bodies of the Teaching University; but it would be on the ground of their appointment by the University, and not as members of their colleges that they would be eligible. The other teachers of the temporarily affiliated colleges, since, unlike the teachers of the constituent colleges, they would not be individually 'recognised' by the University, would not be eligible as members of these bodies; nor could they be appointed as examiners. The temporarily affiliated colleges would not, as such, be represented in the academic governing bodies of the University.

147. Students of the temporarily affiliated colleges would, as now, normally receive the whole of their training in their own colleges; they would not enjoy the privilege enjoyed by the

¹ See para. 160 below.

students of constituent colleges of attending, without payment of special fee, all lectures arranged by the University for which they were qualified. But since it would be an injustice wholly to exclude the abler students of temporarily affiliated colleges from these advantages, we recommend that some of them should, if qualified, be admitted to certain of the university lectures on payment of a fee to be fixed by the University from time to time; subject to the provision that, where the accommodation was limited, the first claim to admission should lie with students from the constituent colleges.

148. Finally, we recommend that the control and supervision of these colleges, and the consideration and review of their applications for affiliation, should be remitted by the Executive Council (or, during the period of transition, the Executive Commission) to a standing committee, which should include the Vice-Chancellor, and representatives of the Academic Council. No one should be appointed to this committee who was personally connected with any of the colleges concerned; but the colleges, though not directly represented, should be entitled to be heard on any question affecting their interests.

149. It is obvious that the proposals here made would place the temporarily affiliated colleges in a definitely inferior position, so long as they held that status; though their students would be, in all essential respects, no worse off than they now are, except by comparison with the constituent colleges. These colleges would be placed in an inferior position precisely because their equipment and organisation would not be such as to enable them to carry on work of the high character with which we hope the name of the Teaching University of Calcutta will in future be associated; and because it is necessary to make this clear. To give them a full share in the academic government of the University would be to kill all hopes of real reform. Any lack of clearness on this point, any mistaken tenderness in dealing with these colleges, would be ruinous to the possibility of developing a well-organised teaching university in Calcutta.

150. Four possible alternatives faced us in dealing with the weaker Calcutta colleges. One was to cut them off from all association with the Teaching University, and to make special provision for them, either by themselves, or in association with the mufassal colleges. From the point of view of Calcutta, the main drawback

of such an arrangement would be that it would encourage these weaker colleges to remain content with their present condition, instead of striving for the higher rank of the constituent colleges. This would be extremely unfortunate. But if these colleges were to be linked with the mufassal colleges, the effects would be as we shall show elsewhere, that the development which we hope will be made possible for the mufassal colleges would be gravely hampered. A second alternative was to water down the requirements for co-operation in the Teaching University so as to make it easy for these colleges to come in; as we have already said, this would have made the whole scheme of reform illusory and would have prevented the improvement which we believe to be attainable. A third alternative was to give no recognition to any college which could not meet the conditions for constituent colleges, and therefore to disqualify these colleges altogether; we believe that this might have inflicted so grave an injustice on some thousands of students as to provoke reaction, and lead to chaos or failure. The fourth alternative, which we have adopted, is to define the methods by which an efficient teaching university can be organised on the basis of those institutions which are, or can without undue delay be made, capable of playing their part in it; to leave the other institutions, for a limited time, very much in the position in which they now stand, though with some improvements; and to trust for the future partly to the gradual amelioration which will, as we believe, be brought about if the other elements of our scheme of reform are accepted, and partly to the exercise of strong pressure upon these colleges to use every means to strengthen and improve their equipment.

151. These colleges have played a necessary and useful part in the past; without their aid the extraordinary demand of Bengal for higher education could not have been met, even in the ineffective way in which it has been met. But the time has come when Bengal needs something better, at once more plentiful and more stimulating, than they are as yet able to provide. Under our proposals, these colleges will have their opportunity. If they can reorganise their systems and increase their resources, they can play an invaluable part, either in the supremely important work which the intermediate colleges have to perform, or in the more conspicuous, though not more valuable, functions of the constituent colleges. A period of transition will enable each of them to choose

which of these functions they will undertake, and to prepare themselves for it. If the least fit among them cannot make use of the opportunity which will be afforded to them to increase their strength, it will be to the interest of the students of Bengal that they should make way for something better.

XIV.—Presidency College.

152. Among the colleges of Calcutta, Presidency College stands in a unique position. Not only is it the oldest and the best equipped ; it is directly under the control of Government, and the greater part of the public funds devoted to higher education in the city are allotted for its maintenance. For these reasons it stands on a different level from any of the other colleges ; and this distinction must, in our judgment, make it difficult for Presidency College to co-operate on equal terms with the other colleges in such a system as we have described. We cannot but feel that if the mode of university organisation described in the foregoing paragraphs is to work easily and without jealousy and friction, some change ought to be made in the organisation and management of Presidency College.

153. We are far indeed from suggesting that its resources should be diminished in order to put it on a level with other colleges ; such a policy would be disastrous ; and it is not in any way necessary or even desirable for the success of the system we are proposing that all the colleges should be of equal strength. But, in the first place, we feel that the exceptional resources of this college should be in some degree made available for the whole student-body of the Teaching University ; or, to put the same thing in another way, that the influence of the teaching and equipment for which Government provides the funds should not be limited to a relatively small number of students. As we have noted more than once,¹ when Presidency College was founded (or re-founded) in 1855, it seems to have been intended, that its strength should be used as a means of supplementing the resources of other colleges ; and if the affiliating system has made this difficult, a reformed system ought to make it practicable. In the second place we consider it to be undesirable that, in a university of colleges such as we have described, one college should stand

¹ Chapter III, para. 27, and Chapter XIII, para. 99.

in a specially intimate relation to Government, and be regarded as having a prior claim to Government funds available for higher education, solely because of that relation.

154. Influenced, no doubt, by these ideas, several of our correspondents have urged that Presidency College should be incorporated in the University. This recommendation has taken two forms. In the first form, it implies that all the buildings of the college, together with an annual grant equivalent to the normal expenditure of Government upon the college, should be made over to the University, to be administered, presumably, in the same way as the Darbhanga building and the post-graduate classes held there. The result would be that Presidency College, as a college, would disappear. This proposal is wrapped up with the proposal that all honours work should be undertaken by the University, as a first step towards the constitution of a unitary teaching university in Calcutta. We have already seen ground to reject this scheme.¹ It is inconsistent with the whole trend of our recommendations. For if, as we have tried to show, efficient colleges as such have a vitally important part to play in, and indeed are indispensable for, the development of a sound system of university teaching under the conditions existing in Calcutta, it would be fatal to do away with the college which has the longest, and in some ways the best, traditions, and in which, for a century, much of the best teaching has been given.

155. A modified form of this scheme suggests that Presidency College should be incorporated in the University in the same way in which University College and King's College have been incorporated in the University of London; that is, that all its property and income should be transferred to the University, but that it should retain a separate entity, being administered by a special committee of the University. This proposal seems to us to be also unacceptable, though in a minor degree. The analogy with London is incomplete and misleading. The situation in London is in some ways less complex than the situation in Calcutta. To take one point only, Presidency College is the only 'arts college' whose full incorporation in the University could be practicable. If there were, as in London, several colleges of the same type

¹ Paras. 17-21 of this chapter.

which could come in on equal terms, while still retaining their distinctive existence, incorporation might possibly form a satisfactory solution of the problem.

156. The proposal described in the last paragraph seems to have two main drawbacks. In the first place, being a university-controlled institution, Presidency College would, under this scheme, be placed in a wholly different position from the other arts colleges. In the circumstances of Calcutta, it would not be to anything like the same extent as the other colleges, a distinct corporation with a character of its own. The corporate life of the college might suffer from this, and in that case the life of the university of colleges would be impoverished. Secondly, in view of the special conditions existing in Calcutta, it would be apt to be regarded with jealousy by the other colleges, which would suspect, with or without reason, that it enjoyed preferential treatment at the hands of the University. This would be all the more marked if, as some of our correspondents have suggested, the college should be given a monopoly of honours work.

157. We agree with the advocates of both these schemes to this extent, that we think the exceptional resources of Presidency College ought to be more fully shared with the rest of the Teaching University. But we are of opinion that it is essential for the present scheme of reconstruction that the college should preserve a position as autonomous as that of other colleges, and should have a distinctive character and aims of its own, with freedom to develop its own methods and ideals. For this purpose, it should be given a more independent, not a less independent, corporate existence than it now has. It should be adequately and even generously endowed for its work as the leading college in a university of colleges. But neither its own members nor other colleges should be made to feel that it stands in a special and privileged position, as the particular protégé either of Government or of the University.

158. We therefore recommend that Government should cease to exercise the special and detailed control over the affairs of Presidency College which it has hitherto exercised; that the property of the college should be vested in trustees, to be appointed by Government; that a fixed annual block grant should be allotted to the college, sufficient to meet the expenses of maintenance and

repairs, as well as the cost of the salaries, pensions, etc., of such staff as may be judged necessary to maintain its educational and administrative efficiency on at least its present standard; and that a governing body, to be appointed in the main by Government, but to include one or more representatives of the University and at least two elected representatives of the teachers of the college in addition to the principal, should be established, with power to administer the revenues arising from Government grants, fees, endowments and other sources, to receive gifts, to create and award scholarships, and, in general, to direct the policy of the college.

159. The college would thus become a distinct corporation. The new arrangement would have the double advantage, on the one hand that Government would know precisely what its liabilities were, and would be saved from the labour of dealing with the detailed recommendations which now come up from the college; on the other hand, that the available revenues could be freely used, without the difficulties which are apt to be caused under the existing system of approved budgets. The increased elasticity which this change would give would be especially valuable because it would render easy the accommodations and adjustments which would often be desirable under the new co-operative system.

160. It goes without saying that if any such change were carried into effect, all existing rights would have to be carefully safeguarded. These include, in the first place, the rights of the existing teaching staff in regard to salary, tenure and pension; and their right to any improvement in these respects which may result from the recommendations of the Public Services Commission; in the second place, any special privileges such as those enjoyed by Muslim students. Thirdly, adequate safeguards would have to be provided to ensure that the governing body should not give preferential treatment to any form of religious teaching, or place obstacles in the way of students of any particular religious community.

161. The greatest difficulty involved in this proposal would be its bearing upon the system of the educational services, whereby the college is now staffed. We have already indicated some of the defects of the service system¹ in its relation to college work.

¹ Chapter XIII, paras. 20-28, and Chapter XXXI, paras. 87-89.

The system as a whole is now under review, as a result of the recommendations of the Public Services Commission; and we submit that the desirability of adjusting the mode of recruitment in this college to the methods of organisation and appointment adopted in the University ought to be seriously considered. It is true that the service system of recruitment need not necessarily be wholly incompatible with the institution of a system of autonomy in the management of the college, such as we have suggested above. It may possibly be found desirable, for a time, to continue the service mode of appointment in filling the staff of Presidency College, especially during the period of transition in the organisation of the university system of Bengal; this might facilitate the redistribution of teaching strength in Calcutta, and in the mufassal centres attached to the Teaching University, which our proposals, if adopted, may render necessary. But it must be recognised that so long as appointments to the staff of the college are made by Government and are determined, as they necessarily must be under the service system, not exclusively by the needs of the college, but also by the claims and seniority of members of the services outside of Calcutta, the control of the governing body over the working of the college must be considerably hampered, as compared with that exercised by the governing bodies of colleges not under Government control.

162. It appears to us to be ultimately desirable that appointments to teaching posts in Presidency College,¹ whether made by the Governing Body or in the special mode which is proposed below for certain of the more important posts, should be made without reference to the service system; and that while the salary scale and pension rates should in general be not less than they now are, and all the senior teachers should enjoy an equally secure tenure, the members of the teaching body should not be enrolled in distinct services, and it should be possible to appoint junior teachers for short periods or on probation.

163. Should the changes which we propose be approved for ultimate adoption in regard to Presidency College, we suggest that members of the Educational Services who hold appointments in Presidency College at the time of the transfer of the college

¹ As also in the University of Dacca; see Chapter XXXIII, paras. 52-59.

to the proposed trustees and governing body, or are appointed to the college thereafter, should be offered the option—

- (a) *either* of remaining members of the service, but lent, permanently or for a fixed time, to the college by Government;
- (b) *or* of being lent temporarily to the college, but remaining liable to transfer to some other post in the Government service, at the discretion of Government;
- (c) *or* of leaving Government service and retaining their positions under the governing body of the college, but with a guarantee that their existing or prospective rights of salary, leave, pension, etc., be unimpaired;
- (d) *or* of remaining in Government service and leaving the college.

164. In any event the governing body should have the right, if its funds permitted, of increasing the salary and status of any teacher of the college even if, under one of the clauses suggested above, he remained a member of one of the services. Thus a junior teacher in the subordinate service might be promoted to a higher post than he would have held under strict service rules, and receive, out of college funds, a supplement to his pay. All vacancies in the staff, as they occurred, should be filled by the governing body as freely as corresponding appointments would be made by the governing bodies of non-Government colleges, subject, of course, to such conditions as might have been laid down at the outset by Government.

165. We recommend the foregoing scheme as the best mode of placing Presidency College in a position of independence parallel to that of colleges not under Government control, and of relieving Government of the somewhat invidious responsibilities which rest upon it in relation to this college, without impairing the strength of the college, or the status, salary and prospects of its teachers. At the same time we recognise the difficulty of carrying out so considerable a change; and we therefore realise that even if our proposals are accepted, it may not be practicable or advisable to carry them out at once. Since the new scheme which we have advocated could not make a favourable start unless Presidency College was able from the outset to play its highly important part, and since this almost necessarily involves (a) the withdrawal of

intermediate students from the college, and (b) the establishment of the new mode of college government and the institution of the special professorships which will be described below, it may possibly be felt that it would be best to delay the initiation of the new system until these adjustments have been carried out.

166. The need of placing Presidency College in a more independent position, more nearly parallel to that of other colleges, was only one of the two desiderata which we laid down in paragraph 153 above. The other was, that the resources of this college should be made more generally available than they now are. This would be in part met by the scheme of inter-collegiate lectures, given by college teachers 'appointed' by the University which we have already outlined. But in our judgment more than this ought to be done.

167. In paragraphs 102 and 109 above, we expressed the hope that chairs or readerships might be established in various constituent colleges of the University, on the condition that the holders should have the rank, and perform the duties, of university professors or readers, while remaining teachers of the college, the whole of their salaries being provided out of college funds or special endowments. We recommend that Presidency College should give the lead to other colleges in this direction, by the establishment of a series of Presidency chairs or readerships, to be held by the principal teachers of the college: some of these chairs might well be named in honour of distinguished helpers or scholars associated with the history of the college, such as Ram Mohun Roy and David Hare. We consider that ten or twelve such posts might readily be provided by Presidency College. They would presumably be filled, in the first instance, mainly by distinguished teachers of the college, or other members of the Indian and Provincial Educational Services, selected on the ground of their scholarship and teaching capacity; and these would, of course, retain at least their existing salary and pension rights. In the first instance the selection might with advantage be made by a joint committee of the University and Government.

168. But on the occurrence of vacancies in any of these posts, and perhaps also for a few of the first appointments, we suggest a special mode of recruitment different from that described above as the normal mode of appointment to university chairs. Ever

since its foundation the principal contribution of Presidency College to the intellectual life of Bengal has lain in the fact that many of its chief teachers have been men trained in the West, and therefore specially useful in keeping Bengal students in touch with the constantly changing methods and outlook of western learning in various fields. We are emphatically of opinion that the need of Bengal for a steady recruitment of the best obtainable men of this type is as great to-day as it has ever been. While the system of university appointments which we have recommended would render possible the appointment of western-trained men, we think it important that a certain number of important posts should be reserved for men (whether Indians or Englishmen) who have been trained in the West, and that the salaries attached to these posts should be on such a scale as would ensure the appointment of men of the best type, and should be capable of special increment in particular cases. It seems to us appropriate, in view of the traditions and history of Presidency College, that the holders of these posts (while available for the general work of the University, and holding the rank of professors in the University) should be attached to Presidency College and should be paid out of the revenues of the college. We recommend, also, that the appointments to these posts should be made in England.

169. The method which we suggest is that the committees of selection for the Presidency chairs should be appointed in England instead of in Calcutta; that in each case (as in many appointments to university posts in the Dominions) a special committee should be appointed; that the University and the college should each appoint a representative from among persons resident in or visiting England who are familiar with the conditions, while the Secretary of State should be asked to appoint the other members, who should be drawn from among the leading British experts in the subject of the chair. We further suggest that in notifying the vacancy and asking for the appointment of a committee of selection, the University and the college should forward, through the Secretary of State, a statement of the special needs and conditions which ought to be kept in view, and also a statement in regard to any western-trained scholars resident in India whose claims ought, in their judgment, to be seriously considered. The committee of selection would then be in a position, with full knowledge of the circumstances, to nominate the candidate who

seemed to them most suitable. They might report that a higher salary ought to be offered to secure the best available man, in which case the college would have to consider whether, out of its own resources or with the aid of the University or of Government, it could supply the additional funds required. The nomination when made would be reported by cable to the University and the college; and if, as would normally be the case, no exception was taken, the appointment would be formally confirmed. We believe that by this method a steady recruitment of western-trained teachers of high ability would be secured, without undue invasion of the prerogatives of the University or the college, and without overlooking the claims of suitable candidates in India.

XV.—The need for new colleges.

170. Even if all the existing colleges in Calcutta were to find it possible to satisfy the conditions which we have laid down for constituent colleges, the accommodation provided would scarcely suffice to meet the demand for training in the Faculties of Arts and Science as it is likely to develop in the future; for the restriction of the number of students to be admitted to an individual college to 1,000 would greatly reduce the numbers now admitted at some of the colleges. That is one of the reasons which have compelled us to recognise the necessity of continuing for a time to recognise, on an affiliating basis, some colleges which may not be able to satisfy these conditions.

171. It is practically certain that some of the colleges will be unable, either at the outset, or in the future, to meet the requirements which we have laid down; and unless we are to contemplate the permanent existence of colleges of an inferior and admittedly unsatisfactory type—a prospect which we should regard with deep concern—it is necessary to encourage and facilitate the rise of new colleges equipped on a scale sufficient to justify their admission to constituent privileges. We earnestly hope that such colleges will come into existence; and we do not hesitate to say, despite the numerous and powerful claims of other branches of university work, such as post-graduate research, technological training, and women's education, that there is no aspect of higher education upon which the money of wealthy men could be more profitably spent than in the endowment of colleges in which

may be possible to recapture something of the intimacy of the relations between teacher and taught which marked the ancient schools of eastern learning. We feel the creation of at least two new colleges to be so essential for the efficient working of the new system that we are inclined to doubt whether the system could be given a fair start unless the immediate establishment of these colleges had been guaranteed.

172. There are certain considerations which we would urge upon the attention of the projectors of new colleges. One is that for the purposes for which the college mainly exists, a relatively small college is better than a large one; though we have fixed 1,000 as the maximum number of students which ought to be accommodated in a single college, we strongly feel that, had it been practicable, it would have been better to fix 500 as the maximum. A second consideration, which was not present to the minds of the founders of most of the existing colleges, is the importance of providing simple but healthy residential accommodation for the students, and also for the teachers, if possible in close proximity to the other buildings of the college. This consideration, taken alone, would seem to point to suburban sites as the most desirable.

173. But here our second desideratum comes in conflict with our third, which is, that it is highly important, if the students are to be enabled to take full advantage of the facilities afforded by the Teaching University, that the college should be placed as near as possible to the main centre of university work in College Square. Unhappily sites, and especially sites spacious enough to allow of healthy residential provision, are very costly and very difficult to obtain, in that area. We have discussed this vexing problem elsewhere¹ in connexion with the very difficult question whether the site of the University as a whole could be removed. Here it must suffice to say that when the foundation of a new college is being considered, the most satisfactory arrangement under present conditions will probably be that a building suitable for teaching work should be erected near College Square, and that residences for students and teachers, if possible with playing fields, should be erected in some healthy but easily accessible suburban district.

174. We do not venture to indicate in any detail the character of the colleges which will, as we hope, come into existence if or when the new system of university teaching takes root. But we desire to emphasise the importance, under the conditions now existing in Calcutta, of the establishment of an Islamia College for Muslim students, where opportunities for religious observance and instruction might be made available. The proposal to create such a college has been under discussion for many years; but its establishment has been delayed, in part by the war, and in part by the desirability of considering this question in relation to the whole problem of university education in Bengal. The question has been specifically referred to us. We have no hesitation in saying that we regard the establishment of such a college as a real and important need. The site proposed for the college is close to the Madrassah, and to the excellent Baker and Elliott Hostels for Musalmans which already exist near by. These are great advantages. On the other hand the distance from College Square might place some difficulties in the way of full participation in the work of the Teaching University. But these difficulties would not be insuperable, and on the whole the suggested site seems to be the best available, assuming that the University as a whole is not to be removed outside the city.

175. The objection has been raised that a special Muslim college would bring about too great an isolation of the Muslim students. We fully appreciate the dangers of such isolation; but this objection would be greatly modified under the system of co-operation and inter-collegiate teaching which we have proposed. On the other hand, it would introduce a distinctive element into the life of the University, which would be all to the good. Moreover, we recognise, with the greatest respect, that one of the reasons which have hitherto prevented Musalmans from taking full advantage of the opportunities of university training has been their belief that religious influence is an indispensable element in any sound system of education. Such a college as we have suggested would meet this difficulty.

176. Should a Muslim college be established, to place it under purely departmental control would be inconsistent with our general proposals. But in view of the fact that the college would be a new institution, and that the Musalmans set store by Government control, we recommend that the Government of Bengal should

engage the staff on such conditions in the case of each member as it may consider suitable, and should arrange, for the first five years at any rate, for the direct administration of the college in such a manner as may at the time appear to be most convenient, with the help of a committee to which the administration might be gradually devolved. Ultimately the college should be placed under the control of an appointed governing body of the type already recommended in the case of Presidency College, administering a fixed annual block grant from Government, but empowered also to accept gifts and endowments, which would, we hope, be forthcoming on a substantial scale from well-to-do Musalmans. But even when this process of devolution has been completed, the property should probably remain in the hands of Government. We further recommend that university chairs of Arabic, Persian and Islamic history should be attached to this college.

177. The reasons which make it desirable that a Muslim college should be established might be advanced with equal cogency in favour of the establishment of an orthodox Hindu college. We shall recommend, in Chapter XLII, a reorganisation of the Sanskrit College, which will, we hope, adequately meet this need.

XVI.—*The carrying out of the change.*

178. We do not disguise from ourselves the fact that the changes which we have proposed in this chapter, both in the methods of instruction and in the organisation of the University and its colleges, are so great as to amount to a revolution in the university system as it now stands; though they are, in our judgment, not greater than are essential in view of the state of things which we analysed in the first part of this report. We have already expressed the opinion that the transformation of methods which we have ventured to recommend cannot be put into effect suddenly, by any mere legislative or administrative decree, but must depend for its ultimate success, like any other great change, upon the spirit in which the task is undertaken, not by a few leaders (though they would be indispensable) but by the whole body of teachers, and indeed by the whole community; and upon the gradual growth of a new tradition, or, rather, upon the gradual revival of the best elements in the older Indian tradition of teaching and scholarship.

179. Nevertheless, even the mere mechanical and administrative adjustments which will be necessary are so great, and the difficulties to be surmounted are of so varied a kind, that the most wisely designed Act, Statutes and Regulations could not foresee or deal with them adequately. It seems to us to be necessary that there should be a good deal of elasticity and power of variation to meet particular difficulties; and that therefore, during the first years, while the new intermediate system is being organised, and the colleges in Calcutta are being encouraged and helped to fulfil the conditions required for constituent rank, special transitional arrangements will have to be made. Whatever stages may be marked out for this transition,¹ it seems to us necessary that a small powerfully constituted Executive Commission should be instituted. We shall discuss the constitution and powers which ought to be attributed to this body in Chapter XXXVII.

180. We have in this chapter advocated a reconstruction of the system of university organisation and teaching in Calcutta so far-reaching in its scope as to amount to a complete departure from Indian university traditions. We believe that the changes we recommend are practicable. We are convinced that they are necessary, if the highest training available for young Bengalis is to be brought into a healthy condition. But we do not conceal from ourselves that the carrying out of so great a change must be attended by great difficulties, and that it cannot be achieved in a moment. The changes proposed in the methods of teaching and in the position of the colleges are so considerable that their full significance will not be quickly or easily realised; and there will be a danger of resentment and friction unless time is given to those likely to be affected to realise the advantages of the new system, and to adapt themselves to it. Large funds will be necessary, both from public and private sources; and in view of the substantial demands made by other parts of our scheme of reform, these may not be readily or easily available on the scale required for the immediate adoption of the new system. Above all, the establishment of the intermediate colleges, and the large expenditure which this will require, as well as the organisation of the new mode of administering secondary and intermediate education which we have proposed, will themselves make very exacting demands upon the adminis-

¹ See Chapter LII.

trative power available; these changes will deeply affect the position of every college; until they are carried out, the better prepared undergraduates for whom our scheme of training is designed, will only be forthcoming in small numbers. We should be very reluctant to suggest delay in the execution of reforms which seem to us to be of vital importance for the public welfare; and we think it should be possible to carry them out reasonably quickly, provided that sufficient funds are forthcoming, and that a body of able men, endowed with adequate powers, are entrusted with the task. Such a body would be the Executive Commission which we have proposed. At the same time we recognise that the Executive Commission might be overweighted if it had to carry on all the ordinary routine of the University besides working out the new system. This difficulty might be avoided if, when the Act reconstituting the University was passed, its operation was delayed for a time, and if, during the interval, the ordinary routine of university administration were carried on by the existing bodies while the Executive Commission devoted itself to preparing for the coming change. Such an arrangement would resemble that adopted in London in 1898. During this interval the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education could be brought into working order, the intermediate colleges could be established, and the effect of this change upon the existing colleges could be appreciated. At the same time the University of Dacca, whose immediate establishment seems to us to be essential, would afford a model of the new method of university government, and in some degree of the new methods of university instruction, which could not fail to be instructive. Meanwhile, though the definite reconstruction of the Teaching University of Calcutta would be delayed, the time would not be wasted; since, as the main features of the scheme we have described would have been formally approved as a programme for future action, the colleges could, with such help as Government and the public were able to afford them, make ready for the part they would have to play in the new system; new colleges could be established; Presidency College could be reorganised; a beginning could be made, under the existing organisation, in the co-operation of colleges and university to provide more efficient teaching; the training of teachers could be set upon a sound footing; and much could be done in the improvement of examinations and in provision for health and residence of the students. It is for Government

and the public to decide (should our general programme of reform be accepted) which of these two methods of procedure would be likely to lead to the best results. In the meanwhile it has been our task, in this chapter, to lay down the lines of the new university system towards which, in our judgment, Calcutta ought to labour.

A note on taking notes.

If notes are not to be dictated in future, students must learn the art of taking notes from a continuous lecture. We think that it is perhaps too generally assumed that the average student can learn to do this by the light of nature. But the process is not a simple one, and a certain amount of guidance will greatly facilitate matters. We were told by a distinguished teacher in Bombay that his pupils clamoured for 'dictated notes' as the only means of passing their examinations, which he declined to give them. Instead, he gave them one or two lessons on the art of taking notes. He lectured for a quarter of an hour and then wrote out on the black-board the notes which he himself would have regarded as adequate. A few illustrations of this kind amply sufficed to put the students on the right track, and no more difficulty was experienced. Clearly there are no hard and fast rules to be observed in the matter. The object of a lecture, as compared with that of a book, is to give a colour and perspective by means of the human voice which only supreme art in writing can evoke; to explore difficulties and present them in different ways so as to overcome the obstacles existent in minds of different types, involving repetitions that would often be utterly wearisome in print; to give illustrations particularly fitted to awaken the interest of the particular audience in front of the lecturer, which would be entirely out of place in addressing the wide public of letters. It is clear that the object of a lecture is largely defeated by slow dictation on the part of the lecturer, and by mechanical writing on the part of the student absorbing the greater part of his attention. He might as well be copying from a book. The ideal for the student to aim at is, while listening with full attention, to be able to grasp as he goes along and to jot down those salient points which will enable him later, when he reads his notes, to recreate in his mind the lecture as he heard it. As in other matters, the ideal is not easy to attain. But with practice a reasonable efficiency may be acquired by the student of average ability. We have expressed ourselves emphatically in condemnation of 'dictated notes.' But we see no reason why, if a lecturer judges it advisable, he should not either at the beginning or the end of a lecture, dictate during a few minutes a brief headline summary of the main points on which he has touched or intends to touch. Such a summary, especially with young students, might often give real help; for the lecturer himself, it is a means of ensuring clearness, by no means to be despised.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE MUFASSAL COLLEGES.

I.

1. The whole scheme of reform which has been outlined in the foregoing chapters must deeply affect the position and prospects of the scattered colleges in the Bengal mufassal. We believe that, under the new system, there can be opened to these colleges the possibility of future developments of far greater interest and usefulness than anything which could have resulted from the present system, though the development of some of the colleges ought to be on widely different lines from that of others. We have endeavoured to frame a plan which will give to these colleges the opportunity of addressing themselves to new responsibilities and of shaping for themselves a more useful future; and this plan will be explained in the present chapter. But we recognise that, at first sight, our scheme as a whole is likely to awaken some apprehension in the minds of those who are responsible for the mufassal colleges; and we therefore think it necessary to face frankly the causes of this feeling before proceeding to explain the means by which we think these causes can be removed.

2. The city of Calcutta, and the superior educational advantages which it has to offer, have always exercised a powerful attraction over the minds of mufassal boys.¹ One thing alone has seemed to make it possible for the mufassal colleges to resist the influence of this attraction, and to keep their classes filled. They sent their students in for the same examinations as the strongest Calcutta colleges, and, on the whole, were not markedly less successful in getting them through. So long as the passing of examinations continued to be, as it still is, almost the only purpose for which students took university courses, and almost the only criterion by which the value of a university education was judged, this fact masked the relative weakness of most of the

¹ See the figures as to the number of mufassal students in Calcutta in Chapter XIII, para. 94.

mufassal colleges, and made it appear that a man might do just as well for himself in a weak and ill-equipped college as in a strong one.

3. But the false standard set up by the overvaluing of examination results, as we have seen, is one of the greatest weaknesses of the present system in Bengal. It has to be overthrown if Bengal is to attain full intellectual vitality. It will be overthrown if and when adequately endowed and efficiently organised teaching universities are established, as we have proposed, in Calcutta and in Dacca. Then it will be gradually realised, by the students, by their parents and advisers, and by their future employers, that a man can in these places get a training altogether superior to anything that has hitherto been open to him. It will be realised that what makes a university education worth having is the training which it gives, the intellectual stimulus of listening to great teachers, the introduction to the responsibilities of life which comes from the close contact and co-operation of a living society; not the mere crude passing of an examination, which is mainly of value if and in so far as it proves that the student has undergone a training of this kind.

4. The Teaching Universities of Calcutta and Dacca will set up in Bengal new standards of university work. Judged by these standards the mufassal colleges will gravely suffer in public estimation unless the character and quality of their work are improved out of all recognition. Unless they are enabled, by systematic encouragement and aid, to provide a training which, while less rich and varied, can yet stand comparison with that afforded by Calcutta and Dacca, they will be apt to be gradually denuded of their students. This result would be in every way unhappy. It would be unfortunate for the mufassal, since it might involve the crushing out of such modest centres of intellectual life as now exist. It would be not less unfortunate for Calcutta and Dacca, since it would mean that these universities would have to deal with such large numbers of students as would make it impossible for them to develop an adequate system of teaching and of individual care and supervision.

5. These results can only be prevented in one or other of two ways. One would be to forbid the reorganisation of Calcutta and Dacca, in order that the mufassal colleges might go on as they now do. We do not hesitate to say that this would be nothing less

than a crime. It would imply the denial to students in Calcutta and Dacca of advantages which must be beneficial not only to themselves, but to the community, merely in order that a number of institutions—which exist for the service of the community—should be enabled to go on doing a kind of work which is already manifestly inadequate to the needs of the Presidency, and will become more obviously inadequate in proportion as Bengal realises how much sound education can do for her service.

6. The only alternative is to develop in the mufassal real and living centres of university work—not merely of preparation for examinations, but of independent thought and investigation. We believe that, with wise guidance and aid, this can be done, not in a moment, but gradually; so that selected mufassal centres may grow in strength as Calcutta and Dacca grow in strength, and may be able to make an appeal to the students which, in its way, will be almost as strong as that of the two leading universities, though somewhat different in kind. But if this is to be done, there must be a reasonable concentration of resources; and no scheme for dealing with the problem will be satisfactory which does not make such concentration possible.

7. In yet another respect the plan of reform which is outlined in the foregoing chapters may seem, at first sight, to be prejudicial to the interests of the mufassal colleges. In all of them the great majority of the students are in the intermediate stage. In many of them the intermediate classes form a source of revenue, by means of which the degree classes are in part supported. The reorganisation which we propose excludes the intermediate classes from the sphere of university work, and may therefore seem to imperil the very existence of these colleges.

8. But the number of students requiring education up to the stage now fixed by the intermediate examination (though of a kind better adapted to their needs) will remain as large as ever, and, indeed, will in all probability greatly increase. For the great majority of these students—for a far larger proportion than is now the case—provision ought to be made in the mufassal. The mufassal colleges, therefore, will have at the intermediate stage as important a function as before—indeed, a far more important function, because it is in this stage of education that some of the greatest and most urgently needed improvements are possible. But these improvements will be costly. It will no longer be

possible to run intermediate classes so as to pay their way, still less so as to yield a profit. Substantial subsidies will be necessary to enable the colleges to carry on this work. We have elsewhere recommended the provision of such subsidies, and we hold these to be so necessary that if they are not forthcoming our recommendations will, in our judgment, be largely nullified.

9. Intermediate education of the new pattern will be able to render such vital services to the whole community, and will be so exacting in its demands upon the thought and upon the resources of those who carry it on, that the colleges which undertake it will find it more and more incumbent upon them to concentrate their attention upon this kind of work, which demands methods quite different from those appropriate to degree or university work. In the same way, those colleges which are zealous to carry on degree work, and which are able to attract large numbers of degree students, will find that the attempt to provide a training worthy of being compared with that afforded by Calcutta and Dacca will equally tax all their strength, and demand all their energies.

10. We therefore contemplate, as the necessary consequence of the changes which we have proposed, a gradual and increasingly definite differentiation in the work of the mufassal colleges, some devoting all their strength to degree work, others to the not less vitally important work of the intermediate stage. The former might in course of time be recognised as 'potential universities,' and ultimately, as universities, acquire independence. The latter would become great centres of varied and practical training for young men of many types. They would be different from the 'potential universities,' but no more inferior to them than Eton is inferior to Oxford. But this process of development, though it must not be artificially forced, must not merely be left to chance; and a well designed scheme of reorganisation must provide the means for giving to all the colleges a wise guidance during their gradual development towards different, but equally worthy and useful, destinies.

11. But it is necessary, in framing a scheme of reform, to consider not only the needs and interests of the colleges, but the sentiments and desires of the community as a whole. There can be no doubt that educated opinion in Bengal has long held, and still largely holds, that a wide diffusion of institutions of university rank in all parts of the province is in itself desirable, as a means of bringing

home to the people the value of education, and as a stimulus to the intellectual life of the districts in which these institutions are planted. So strongly is this opinion held by many leaders of opinion that they would be willing with their eyes open even to sacrifice efficiency in teaching, if the price of efficiency was a reduction in the number of available centres of instruction. We recognise the force of these considerations, especially in the stage of educational development through which Bengal has been passing; we recognise also that the remarkable demand for education in Bengal has been in a considerable degree due to the wide distribution of colleges of university rank. At the same time it must be admitted that the influence of these small and under-equipped institutions, which can afford only a narrow and, for most of their students, purely literary training, and which can therefore do nothing to help their students to prepare themselves for more practical careers, has been largely responsible for the disregard of practical training from which Bengal has gravely suffered, and has encouraged that unhealthy concentration of the ambitions of young men of ability upon a course of mere mechanical preparation for book-work examinations which almost all our correspondents deplore.

12. We desire not only to retain, but to extend more widely, the influence which can be exercised by institutions of higher education upon the community which surrounds them. But we desire that this influence should be healthier and more varied than it now is, and that the community should be brought to realise that it is possible for its sons to equip themselves not merely for arts degrees, and for the limited careers to which these lead, but also for a variety of forms of practical activity, in agriculture, commerce and industry. This end will, we believe, be attained by the establishment of the intermediate colleges, which we propose should be set up in much larger numbers than the existing colleges. The intermediate colleges are not to be thought of as merely a reproduction of the existing second-grade colleges, which have, by common consent, been far from satisfactory. They will be better staffed and better equipped, not merely than the second-grade colleges, but than most of the existing first-grade colleges; and they will consequently be able to exercise a much deeper influence upon the life and thought of the community. With their schemes of vocational training, they will be able to show that higher education can serve far more varied purposes than it has hitherto served.

Their specialist teachers of education, of science, of agriculture, of commerce, will often be able to render direct service beyond the limits of their class-rooms. We should hope that in time they might offer instruction suitable for persons who had no intention of pursuing a regular academic course. In particular the colleges might well become centres for university extension courses, delivered, often in the vernacular, by scholars brought from the universities, to audiences of the general public. In all these ways the diffusion of interest in, and opportunities for, higher education would be made far more effective under the scheme which we propose, than would ever be possible under the existing system. And at the same time training up to a higher stage, but of a much more efficient character than is now available, would be provided not only at Calcutta and Dacca, but at selected centres in the mufassal which would gradually become foci of intellectual life far more vigorous and vital than can possibly be created by the handfuls of underpaid and overworked teachers now scattered among many isolated colleges.

II.

13. Having in view the possibility of the future creation of other university centres in Bengal besides Calcutta and Dacca, and the need, if such a possibility exists, of keeping it in mind in framing any scheme of reconstruction, we included in our questionnaire an enquiry¹ whether, in the opinion of our correspondents, it would be desirable, either now or in the future, to establish other universities, on the lines of the Dacca scheme or on other lines. The replies to this enquiry were very varied, and very interesting. Exactly 150 of our correspondents deal with the question. Of these, seventeen are definitely hostile to the creation of any new universities in Bengal—a few of them being opposed even to the establishment of a university at Dacca. Thirty-five, while not hostile to the idea in itself, regard the possibility of realising it as too distant to be worthy of serious discussion. Ninety-eight are decisively favourable to the idea, though many urge that no attempt should be made to realise it until the University of Calcutta has been reconstructed; and of the ninety-eight, no less than seventy-five name places which seem to them to be suitable sites for universities.

¹ Question 4.

14. The majority of those who regard it as definitely undesirable to set up new universities base their opposition on grounds of expense, urging that all the available funds should be spent upon the development of Calcutta. With this view we have, in some regards, a good deal of sympathy. But it must not be forgotten that there are some thousands of university students in the mufassal whose needs we are scarcely entitled to disregard. Others take up the much more convincing ground that outside Calcutta and Dacca there are no centres of sufficient culture to afford the necessary atmosphere for the growth of a university; and that there are not enough teachers of distinction available to staff even two universities, not to speak of more. If there are no centres of intellectual life in all the vast area of the Bengal mufassal, is not this a dangerous and unhappy state of things, and does it not appear all the more important to do whatever is possible to create such centres? But this can be done, in our judgment, only by the development of really strong groups of scholars and teachers at a few centres. Grouped together in a smaller number of centres, the existing teachers would be able to stimulate one another and to specialise in their work; their libraries and other materials of study could be made more efficient; while their students could not only be offered a wider range of studies, but would be enabled to enjoy in some degree the atmosphere of intellectual life which cannot easily be created in small self-contained centres. The teachers, working under such conditions, would be more efficient; and the number of efficient teachers available for the needs of Bengal would be increased.

15. Three of our correspondents take up a yet more fundamental position; and contend that the creation of new universities is undesirable simply because it would make a breach in the uniformity of the present system of training. "To multiply universities in the Presidency," says Mr. B. C. Bose, "would be sadly subversive of all uniformity in matters of education. This heterogeneity would be without any corresponding benefit."¹ But is Mr. Bose right in the value he attaches to a rigid uniformity of training? The experience of other countries seems to show that variety, not uniformity, is the source of intellectual vitality. The wonderful modern revival of learned activity in France dates from

¹ Question 4.

the time when, under the leadership of Albert Dumont, Ernest Lavisse, and Octave Gréard, the uniformity imposed by Napoleon's single dominating University of France was broken down, and eighteen French universities sprang into vigorous life. Most of our correspondents, indeed, take this view rather than Mr. Bose's. "There is room for new universities," says Mr. Joges Chandra Ray,¹ "but none for a multiplication of one type, teaching the same subjects in the same way and turning out graduates similar in body, mind, and spirit.... A university exists for a society, and, as a society is a complex organism having various functions to perform, new universities ought to take up the different questions and try to embody the underlying principles in their ideal. There will then be diversity in university education in the country."

16. We agree with Mr. Ray in his belief that there is need for greater diversity in the intellectual life of Bengal, and in the training received by her sons. But, when we come to examine the actual suggestions made by our correspondents as to the proper sites for new universities, we cannot but feel that the line of advance for the immediate future is by no means clearly marked out. For our correspondents name, among them, no less than twenty-nine places.² No one of these is so obviously marked out as a future university that everybody names it; though Rajshahi gets no less than 55 votes, and Chittagong 34. Berhampur is the only other place which gets more than 20 votes, while four other places obtain between 10 and 20. No less than eleven of the places suggested as seats of universities have no colleges at all, even of the second-grade. It appears, then, that while, in the opinion of the great majority of those correspondents

¹ Question 4.

² It may be interesting to enumerate these in alphabetical order. The figures after the names indicate the number of times each place has been recommended. An asterisk indicates that the place does not now possess a college of even the second-grade:—

*Asansol (4)	Chittagong (34)	*Jessore (2)	*Murshidabad (4)
Bankura (8)	Comilla (4)	*Kalimpong (1)	Mymensingh (7)
Barisal (10)	*Darjeeling (1)	Khulna (1)	*Nadia (3)
Berhampur (21)	Daulatpur (2)	Krishnagar (5)	Rajshahi (55)
*Birbhum (1)	Faridpur (1)	*Kurseong (3)	*Raneegunge (1)
*Bogra (1)	Gauhati (14)	*Malda (2)	Rangpur (12)
Burdwan (14)	Hooghly (3)	Midnapur (4)	Serampore (1)

Sylhet (6).

who have answered this question, as in our own, the creation of new universities will ultimately form the best solution of the problem of higher education in Bengal, there are at present (apart from Dacca) few, if any, centres which are obviously indicated as suitable sites for universities. And this conclusion is borne out by our own observations. After having visited all the degree colleges in the mufassal we are regretfully driven to the conclusion that there is no college which is as yet ripe to be transformed into a university.

17. We are constrained, therefore, to agree with Dr. Nares Chandra Sen Gupta¹ when he says that it is impossible at the moment "to determine which place should in future develop into such a centre of education as to make a university suitable for the place;" and with Mr. Charu Chandra Biswas¹ when he says that more universities should only be established "if and where the conditions essential to the growth of true university life are realised," and goes on to assert that there are at present no centres in Bengal "which call for, or would support, an independent university." Yet there are at this moment no less than twelve centres outside of Calcutta and Dacca which undertake to give the whole training needed for a university degree, though, as Mr. Biswas puts it, they lack "the conditions essential to the growth of true university life."

18. It is manifest that Bengal, with the resources at her disposal, cannot maintain real university teaching at so many as twelve mufassal centres. How is this dilemma to be resolved? We should hesitate to go so far as Mr. A. C. Chatterjee,² whose remedy is to "tell the colleges outside Calcutta that they must, within a fixed period (say thirty years or one generation) either develop each into a university, or cease to be colleges and become high schools." But Mr. Chatterjee's drastic suggestion points to what will probably be the solution in the long run. We should hope that, with proper guidance and encouragement, a small number of these colleges might develop into real university centres, abandoning the work of the intermediate stage, while the rest of the colleges devote themselves to the highly important and valuable function of intermediate training.

¹ Question 4.

² Question 5.

19. But who is to select the colleges to which this special guidance and encouragement are to be given, and on what principles is the selection to be made? It is very difficult, as things are, to draw any sharp distinctions among the colleges, and to say, this college is fit to give university training, that college is not. It would be useless to ask the colleges themselves to make their choice between the two destinies, as Mr. Chatterjee suggests. And, in the present condition of higher education in Bengal, it would be unwise to attempt, by any sudden and arbitrary decision, to determine which of the colleges should be encouraged to aim at the one destiny and which at the other.

20. If we were called upon to indicate definitely the places at which universities ought ultimately to be established we should find difficulty in giving a precise answer. We should, without hesitation, assert that there ought to be one university, and (so far as can be foreseen) one only, in Northern Bengal; but we should find it very hard to decide whether its seat should be at Rajshahi or at Rangpur.¹ On geographical grounds we should be inclined to think that there ought some day to be a university at Chittagong,² to serve the remote eastern region of Bengal, which is differentiated from the rest of the Presidency not only by trade interests, but, to some extent, also by racial and religious distinctions; but we should have to recognise that neither the demand of this region for higher education, nor the condition of its principal college, justified any immediate action. We might be tempted to think of Berhampur³ as a possible site for a university on the ground that its college already provides for a larger number of students than any other in the mufassal; but its work shows no distinctive features, and it depends too exclusively upon the generosity of a single patron, who cannot fairly be expected to undertake the very large expenditure which would be necessary. Finally, we should have to consider whether there ought not to be a university for

¹ See Chapter XIII, paras. 121-124, where the considerations relevant to this question are set forth. Fifty-five of our correspondents vote for Rajshahi, 12 for the new-born college of Rangpur.

² Chittagong receives more votes (34) from our correspondents than any centre save Rajshahi. The staff of Chittagong College is in favour of its development into a university, and have forwarded to us an interesting statement as to the changes they regard as necessary for that purpose.—General Memoranda, page 415.

³ See Chapter XIII, paras. 121 and 122. Berhampur gets 21 votes from our correspondents.

that part of Bengal which lies west of the Hooghly. But, with two exceptions, there is no college in Western Bengal which seems to have any claim for special treatment. The first exception is Bankura, which has the great advantage of a healthy climate, and is undeniably doing good work. But, as we have already seen,¹ the conditions in Bankura are not such as to promise that it could attain the stature of a university. The other exception is Serampore. This college not only has a more generous proportion of teachers to students than any other college, in or out of Calcutta, and a happier organisation of student-life than all but one or two; it also preserves the great tradition of Carey, Marshman, and Ward, and already possesses, by a charter from the King of Denmark, confirmed by treaty between Denmark and Britain, the right of conferring degrees. As will be seen from the very full and valuable memorandum submitted by the members of its staff,² this college has not only conceived the ambition of rising to university rank, but has formed a high and worthy idea of what university rank involves. But Serampore is as yet a small college, not ripe for so great a change.

21. We return, therefore, to Dr. Nares Chandra Sen Gupta's conclusion that it is not possible at this moment to determine which places will develop into universities. But I think, Dr. Sen Gupta³ continues, that each college should be granted a large measure of freedom, so as to make it possible for each college to develop on its own lines, and to form the nucleus of a future university, when its resources should reach that degree of development. Some device whereby the colleges may differentiate themselves, whereby the deadening uniformity imposed by the present system may be mitigated; this seems to be the solution indicated by the circumstances. The colleges must be given a chance of showing distinctive characteristics, of doing work that shall not be merely a reproduction of an old and wearisome pattern; a chance also of arousing the interest, and winning the practical support, of their districts; in order that the best among them may, in the long run, establish a claim to the higher rank. And the opportunity of acquiring these privileges ought not to be withheld from any college. If, without too sudden a departure from the existing

¹ See Chapter XIII, para. 129.

² General Memoranda, page 333.

³ Question 5.

system, we can create conditions which will be favourable to this kind of growth, further experience will resolve the problem—provided that the duty of watching over and encouraging the new development is entrusted to some enlightened and well-qualified body.

22. To recapitulate : In the long run the best thing for Bengal will be the establishment of a small number of efficiently organised universities in the mufassal, wherein a training can be given which will be not less valuable in quality, though possibly less wide in range, than that which will be offered by Calcutta and Dacca ; the remainder of the colleges devoting themselves to the vitally important work of the intermediate stage. At the present moment, it is impossible to determine which colleges ought to be marked out for the former, and which for the latter, destiny. But it would be unjust that the existing colleges should be deprived of their present rights at an arbitrarily fixed date, or until even ampler provision than now exists has been made to meet the needs of the students whom these colleges at present train. At the same time it is important to find a means whereby the better colleges may be stimulated to strive towards a higher destiny, may be enabled to awaken the pride and win the financial support of their own districts, and may be allowed to enjoy, as they progress in strength, an increasing degree of freedom, such as will fit them for the responsibilities of independence. By what means can these ends best be attained ?

III.

23. One scheme, advocated by a number of our correspondents,¹ is that there should be established a University of Bengal, distinct from the reconstituted Teaching University of Calcutta and from

¹ Memoranda by Mr. H. Sharp in General Memoranda, page 447, and by Mr. W. C. Wordsworth, *ibid.*, page 489 ; also answers to Question 5 by Mr. E. E. Biss, Mr. R. N. Gilchrist, the Rev. W. E. S. Holland, Miss A. Janan, Mr. D. B. Meek, and Mr. F. C. Turner. Other correspondents, though they do not use the name 'University of Bengal,' seem to favour the idea—Mr. Saiyad Muhsin Ali, Mr. Jatindra Chandra Guha, Mian Muhammad Fazli Husain, Mr. Kokileswar Sastri, Dr. Prabhu Dutt Shastri, Mr. F. W. Südmersen, and the Rev. J. Watt—all in answer to Question 5. The same course was strongly urged upon us by an influential deputation of the Musalmans of Calcutta (General Memoranda, page 210). They urged the establishment of a University of Bengal, distinct from both Calcutta and Dacca, as "the only possible solution," and added that, "on academical grounds also this arrangement appears the best that can be devised."

the University of Dacca, and making provision for the needs of all those colleges which were not incorporated in, or otherwise provided for by, either of the two teaching universities. This proposal has certain obvious attractions. One of the greatest of these is that it would make a 'clean cut,' and avoid complexity of organisation, by providing a distinct mode of treatment for the three distinct problems of university organisation in Bengal, Calcutta, Dacca and the mufassal. Calcutta and Dacca would be left free to develop their own systems as teaching universities, unhampered by association with an affiliating organisation; while at the same time the scheme appears to promise that the needs of the mufassal would receive distinct and appropriate treatment; might, if presented as a special problem, receive fuller aid from Government; and would not suffer from being confused with, or unduly influenced by, the requirements of Calcutta. In short the project seems to offer the readiest solution of the problem.

24. The proposal is put forward in several different forms. Some would limit it to the mufassal colleges, others would include those Calcutta colleges which were not included in the Teaching University. Nawab Syed Nawabaly Chaudhury¹ goes so far as to suggest that there might be, in addition to the two teaching universities, two federal or affiliating universities, one for Western, the other for Eastern Bengal. Some would constitute the new University on a purely affiliating basis, that is, they would make the University something outside the colleges, imposing regulations and curricula upon them. Others appear to prefer a federal basis, which would imply that the governing bodies of the University would mainly consist of representatives from all the colleges included in the federation. The advantage claimed for the affiliating system is that it renders possible a complete control over the teaching work in those cases when the colleges are too weak to be trusted. The advantage of the federal, as distinct from the affiliating, system is that it would give to the colleges a real voice in the design of their own curricula, and a share of responsibility for the determination of university policy. The exclusion of nearly all the mufassal colleges from these educative privileges is a feature of the existing system to which our attention has been repeatedly directed ;

¹ Answer to Question 5. * See also the answers to the same question of Khan Bahadur Muhammad Ismail and Shams-ul-Ulama Abu Nasr Waheed.

and we feel it to be highly desirable that this disability should if possible be removed, especially in the case of the stronger and better equipped colleges.

25. We do not propose to discuss in detail the arguments for and against the institution of a University of Bengal, because the establishment of such a university is under existing circumstances, and in view of our other recommendations, impracticable. In arriving at this conclusion we have been influenced, in the main, by two considerations.

26. In the first place, it is impossible to predict what will be the precise effect upon the mufassal colleges of the other changes we propose—the withdrawal of the intermediate students from university classes, and the organisation of strong teaching universities in Calcutta and in Dacca. If these proposals are carried into effect, their influence upon the mufassal colleges will certainly be profound, as we have already noted; and it would be unwise to create a new and independent organisation for the mufassal colleges until the results of these changes are fully apparent. This is especially true in regard to the proposal to establish intermediate colleges which will at once withdraw from every college two-thirds or in some cases three-fourths of its students. On the figures of 1917 there would remain about 1,800 post-intermediate students in the twelve arts colleges outside Calcutta and Dacca. If the degree course were uniformly extended to three years, this number would be increased to about 2,700 students; but even this figure would allow only an average of 230 students to each college, and it is impossible to conduct a college economically for so small a number, especially if any reasonably wide range of subjects is to be offered.

27. At the present rate of increase the number of students pursuing arts and science degrees would be doubled in about seven years. But it is impossible to estimate beforehand how far the demand for purely literary courses of study, which the colleges now mainly offer, would be checked or diverted by the new and more practical courses proposed to be instituted in the intermediate colleges; nor can it be foretold how far, if at all, the improvement of the standards of teaching and examination at the lower stages, and the demand for a three years' course for the degree, would lead to a reduction in the number of degree students. The figures cited above would seem to suggest that while it would be difficult

to maintain in an efficient condition a large number of colleges providing teaching up to the degree standard, it should be possible to carry on a small number of colleges in which, by a concentration of resources, better and more varied teaching could be given. The readiness with which Bengali students migrate from one part of the mufassal to another suggests¹ that such a concentration would not be impracticable, and that it would inflict far less hardship in individual cases than might at first sight appear; especially as we suggest a substantial increase in the number of stipends or scholarships available for poor students. Indeed, it would appear that the figures cited ought to justify the replacement, at an early date, if the financial resources were available, of one or more of these colleges by new teaching universities after the model of Dacca;² and this would, in our judgment, ultimately be the best solution of the problem, since, without in any way curtailing the facilities for university education, it would very greatly increase the value and quality of the training which the students would receive.

28. But in view of the uncertainty of many of the relevant factors which ought to be taken into consideration, it would in our judgment be unwise to make any rigid scheme for dealing with the needs of the mufassal. What is needed is an arrangement which would preserve flexibility and elasticity, and would not exclude any of the various possibilities of future development. The institution, at this stage, of a University of Bengal would in our judgment be unfortunate, because it would disregard this need for a gradual adaptation.

29. Another consideration has also greatly weighed with us. As the proposal of a University of Bengal had been laid before us, we felt that we ought to have the judgment upon it of the non-Government mufassal colleges themselves. We accordingly submitted this, along with other alternative schemes, to conferences of the principals and other representatives of the private and missionary colleges.³ At these conferences, which were held in Calcutta, all these colleges were represented. With practical unanimity they rejected the proposal, and asserted their desire to remain in

¹ See Chapter XIX, paras. 3 and 4.

² See Chapter XXXIII, para. 69.

³ See the letters of summons, printed in the volume of appendices to this report, and Chapter I, para. 21.

connexion with the University of Calcutta. From their point of view the conclusion was inevitable. The colleges are as yet individually too weak to co-operate with effect in the working of a new affiliating or federal university. They could not, without the aid of Calcutta, obtain the services of a sufficient number of men of ability and standing to ensure that their proceedings commanded public confidence. In the past it has only been because they were able in some degree to share the prestige of Calcutta University that they could carry on their work. They will need the aid and guidance of Calcutta more than ever during the difficult period of transition which lies before them, when they will need counsel and help in making their choice between the two kinds of work, upon one or other of which they will in no long time be compelled to concentrate their strength—intermediate work and degree work.

30. We have already¹ dealt with a difficulty which may be felt by some, that the concentration of post-intermediate work in a limited number of selected centres would be hostile to the diffusion of public interest in education; and we have shewn that under our scheme the creation of intermediate colleges on a large scale will in fact increase and widen this influence, while at the same time making its appeal more direct and more varied. But there is another aspect of the problem which ought to be remembered. University training, if it is to be worthy of the name, cannot be given on a self-supporting basis, especially at the low fees which Bengal students can afford to pay. It is a costly thing in any case; it is especially costly if it has to be provided for small groups of students in many places. The existing colleges of the Bengal mufassal, as we have seen in an earlier chapter,² are giving under great difficulties a kind of training which is quite inadequate to the needs of their students. To bring this training up to even a moderate degree of efficiency in all the colleges which now exist, and to provide an adequate range of subjects, adequate pay for the teachers, and adequate libraries and laboratories, would involve a formidable expenditure, especially after the intermediate students have been withdrawn. Moreover, once the new intermediate system is working those students trained by it who go on to the degree course will demand a more efficient kind of instruction than the colleges are

¹ See paras. 11 and 12 above.

² Chapter XIII, paras. 116-132.

now able to offer. The only way in which these difficulties can be met is by a concentration of resources. For it must be obvious that one college of 600 students can be worked both more efficiently and more economically than two distinct colleges of 300 students each: if for no other reason, because administrative charges are reduced, because its library funds will be twice as large and therefore, roughly speaking, make twice as many books available, and because its teachers will be able to specialise in a higher degree and to enjoy the stimulus of a more varied society of their peers. There is a lower limit of numbers below which a college cannot be efficiently worked without wasteful expenditure. And while it is also true that there is a higher limit of numbers beyond which a well organised academic body ought not to go, yet even then the advantages of concentration are not exhausted, since two colleges in close juxtaposition can by pooling their resources give a far better training to all their students than either could give in isolation.

31. We therefore feel it to be essential that unless the higher work in the mufassal is to be wholly unworthy of the needs of the students it must be gradually concentrated in selected centres. But the process of concentration cannot be carried out in a moment. It must involve a just and careful consideration of the claims of various colleges and of various parts of the Presidency. And for this reason some organisation seems to be necessary which will be able, without arbitrary treatment of any college, or of any group of students, and without any restriction of the opportunities for university training, bring into effect the new adjustment which seems to be essential in the interests of Bengal.

32. After having weighed every practicable alternative, we have come to the conclusion that the only immediate solution of the problem is to be found in some form of association between the mufassal colleges and the University of Calcutta; and for this purpose we shall propose the establishment of a Board of Mufassal Colleges, which will be more fully described later. We have endeavoured to design it in such a way as to leave to the colleges under its jurisdiction the maximum degree of freedom consistent with the maintenance of adequate standards of attainment, while freeing the Teaching University, as far as possible, from the entanglements of an affiliating system. We shall propose that the purview of this Board should be limited to the mufassal colleges. The weaker colleges in Calcutta, excluded from the rank of constituent colleges

in the Teaching University, ought not to be allowed representation upon the Board of Mufassal Colleges; and this for two reasons. In the first place, their representatives, being always on the spot, would tend to exercise an undue influence over its decisions, and would thus diminish the emphasis laid upon the special needs of the mufassal. In the second place these colleges might, if admitted to the Board, be tempted to rest satisfied with their present condition; the motives for striving to meet the requirements for admission to constituent rank would be diminished; and therefore the healthy development of the Teaching University would be retarded.

33. It is not without reluctance that we recommend the establishment of a Board dealing with affiliated colleges in the mufassal; because we strongly feel that the combination of affiliating functions with the work of a teaching university is in itself undesirable. We should have preferred to be able to leave the Teaching University of Calcutta free to address itself to its great task without any such distraction; but in view of the long association of the mufassal colleges with Calcutta, and their special needs during the period of reconstruction, we feel that it is not possible or just that Calcutta should be encouraged at once to disembarrass itself of its responsibilities for their guidance. We strongly feel, however, that the Mufassal Board should be regarded not as a permanent but as a temporary organisation; though it is impossible to predict how long it may continue to be necessary. We recommend it as a means of leading up to and preparing a better and a permanently satisfactory solution. The best solution would, in our judgment, be the development out of the best of the existing colleges, of new teaching universities in the mufassal, in addition to Dacca; and in defining the methods of organisation and the functions of the Mufassal Board we shall keep this in view. Our conclusion that this will ultimately be the best solution may not command immediate or universal assent. But it is at least a possible line of development; and since the educational outlook changes rapidly, no mode of healthy growth should be ruled out. It is one of the advantages of the scheme which we propose, that while it can, and, we hope, will, be used to forward such a development, it is not inconsistent with other possible solutions. For example, it might be found most practicable that while most of the colleges devoted themselves to intermediate work, several degree colleges, each individually too weak to be an independent university, but some stronger than the

present isolated colleges and all at least strong enough to teach up to the pass standard of the teaching universities, should still be maintained, and should ultimately be given a separate organisation of a federal or combined federal and affiliating type. The Mufassal Board might lead the way to any of these solutions. In short we propose a scheme which, while it is definitely designed to lead to the establishment of new teaching universities, is nevertheless, having regard to the special difficulties of creating such universities in the mufassal of Bengal, not incompatible with other solutions.

IV.

34. It has been suggested to us by several correspondents, most of whom are Musalmans, that, while the colleges of Western Bengal might continue to be affiliated to the University of Calcutta, the colleges of Eastern Bengal should be affiliated to the new University of Dacca. We are precluded from considering this suggestion by the definite, and often repeated, pledge of the Government of India that the University of Dacca "should not include any colleges beyond the limits of the town." But, even if no such undertaking had been given, we should have felt it impossible to recommend this proposal.¹ The problem of university education in the mufassal must be dealt with as a single whole, and a uniform and consistent policy must be pursued in regard to it, if there is to be any clear, forward-looking, and statesmanlike view. And this implies that a single controlling body should be responsible for dealing with it.

35. We therefore recommend that all the mufassal colleges should be associated with the University of Calcutta. The danger of such an arrangement might be that it might impede the development of the teaching system in Calcutta. We regard it as essential, therefore, that the organisation set up for the mufassal colleges should not be of such a kind as to hamper or retard the work of the Teaching University in Calcutta, or to limit the range and character of the training which it gives to those which are attainable by the mufassal colleges. While it may be desirable that a considerable degree of uniformity should be maintained between the Teaching University and the mufassal

¹ See Chapter XXXIII, 'The University of Dacca,' where (paras. 21-29) the objections to this course from the point of view of Dacca are explained.

colleges in the general plan and standards of their work, more particularly in those groups of pass subjects which are most widely taken, the pursuit of uniformity should not be allowed to prevent the fullest utilisation of the resources of Calcutta by the students of Calcutta, or the establishment in Calcutta of courses of study which no mufassal college would be able to provide. At the same time there should be offered to the best mufassal colleges the largest degree of freedom which they are likely to use wisely.

36. The means which we suggest for attaining these ends is the establishment of a special Board of the University of Calcutta, to be known as the Board of Mufassal Colleges. The details of the constitution and powers which we propose for this Board will be fully described in a later chapter.¹ In the meanwhile it may suffice to say that we propose that every mufassal college which is affiliated up to the degree standard should be represented by at least one member on this Board, and the stronger colleges by more than one; that there should also be a very strong representation upon it of the teachers in the Teaching University of Calcutta and its constituent colleges, appointed by the Academic Council; that the Board, subject to review by the Academic Council, should be responsible for the curricula and examinations of the mufassal colleges; and that it should have a distinct system of finance.

37. Thus, for the first time in the history of university education in Bengal, every mufassal college would be able to make its voice heard in the determination of the courses of study which its students pursue. But any scheme which proposes to make possible common deliberations among the representatives of mufassal colleges must take account of the difficulty of communications in the vast area of Bengal, and the waste of time and money which would be involved if men were to be assembled at frequent intervals from all parts of the province. In order to meet these difficulties, and to ensure that the mufassal colleges may have a really effective, and not a merely nominal, share in these discussions, we suggest that the Board should not meet very often, but that its main business should be concentrated in a single series of meetings, which might be confined within a single week, leaving routine business to be conducted by an Executive

¹ Chapter XXXVII, the Constitution of the University of Calcutta, paras. 76-82.

Committee, of which the Vice-Chancellor would be Chairman, and by a paid Secretary, who would work in close association with the Registrar of the University.

38. The feature of this proposal which is most likely to arouse challenge and debate is that it implies that there will be distinct curricula and examinations for the mufassal colleges. It may be feared by some that under these circumstances the degrees won by mufassal students will be less highly valued than those of Calcutta students. We do not think that this need be so, seeing that the standard of these degrees will be guaranteed, in a mode to be described later, by the University of Calcutta, and that they will bear its name. But it seems to us to be essential that there should be some variation in the curricula, and a separate system of examinations, for the mufassal colleges, and this for two reasons. In the first place, it would be unfair to expect any of the mufassal colleges to 'keep step' with the far fuller and more varied system of training afforded by the combined resources of the University and the constituent colleges in Calcutta. Any system of rigidly uniform curricula and examinations would be unfair to both sides. In the second place, every examination tends to become more mechanical, and therefore more unsatisfactory, in proportion as the number of candidates increases.¹ The number of candidates for the degree examinations of the University of Calcutta is already far too great for efficiency; and it will be a positive advantage that they should be divided into three groups, for Calcutta, Dacca, and the mufassal.

39. The objection likely to be alleged against this proposal is that the same degree of the same university ought not to mean different things; that there should be uniformity of standards. But the truth is that any rigid uniformity of standards is in fact unattainable even within the same university. Standards notoriously vary from year to year. Even in the same year the student who takes one group of subjects will be far more severely tested than the student who takes another group. And of two students who take the same group of subjects in the same year, even if they obtain an identical aggregate of marks, it is notorious that one may be a much abler man than the other. The student

¹ See Chapter XVII, where the problems and methods of examination are discussed.

trained in a good college, where he has received good teaching and has learnt to use books, should be *pro tanto* worth more than the student who has obtained the same marks by cramming notes and keys. The notion that an exact uniformity of standard can be obtained by the simple device of compelling all the candidates to answer the same questions is altogether illusory. This is very frankly recognised by modern students of educational problems. In the University of London, for example, not only are there different sets of papers for external and internal students, but in certain examinations special sets of papers are provided for individual colleges, to suit their special curricula. Equality of standard can be secured, in a reasonable degree, by conference between those who set and mark the various papers, or by an interchange of examiners. It can, indeed, be attained in this way even more effectively than by compelling all the candidates to take the same papers.¹

40. It seems to us to be important that, as far as possible there should be a general equation or correspondence of standard, though not an exact uniformity of content, between the curricula and examinations of the mufassal colleges and those of the Teaching University. But this can be secured far better in other ways than by a mechanical uniformity of question papers. It can be ensured that the general plan and range of the courses of study pursued in various pass groups or honours schools, and the amount and range of knowledge required from the students, shall be approximately equivalent. They need not be, and indeed, in many cases, ought not to be, identical, for Calcutta will be able to afford training in various branches of study which must be beyond the reach of nearly all the mufassal colleges. Thus Calcutta might reasonably include an element of experimental psychology in courses in philosophy or education; this would be impossible for the mufassal colleges, but their courses might be made equivalent in weight by the substitution of something else.

41. In order to ensure a fair equivalence between the two courses of study we shall suggest that a very large element—not exceeding half—in the Board of Mufassal Colleges shall consist of Calcutta teachers; who may safely be trusted to see that the

¹ This end will be much facilitated by the institution of the Board of Examinations which we shall propose—see Chapter XL.

degree is not given on cheaper terms to the mufassal students than to their own. We shall further suggest that all the proposals of the Mufassal Board shall be laid before the Academic Council of the Teaching University, which shall have the power of rejecting them, or of referring them back for reconsideration, but not of amending them in detail. We are confident that, while a mathematical equivalence is an illusory ideal, by these means a fair equivalence of standard may be attained, and that the courses may be adjusted to the resources of the mufassal colleges without in any way restricting the work of the Teaching University. The mufassal colleges will thus enjoy a double advantage. They will retain the benefits of the tutelage and prestige of Calcutta. At the same time they will enjoy a freedom, and a share in the control of their own affairs, such as the present system denies to them.

V.

42. Under the present system one of the most important functions of the University in relation to the individual colleges is the function of supervision and inspection, and the right of giving or withholding affiliation in this or that subject up to this or that grade. These functions the Mufassal Board would obviously not be well qualified to perform, though it might well be empowered to make recommendations regarding the conditions of affiliation which ought to be imposed. The recognition of colleges for the ordinary privileges of affiliation under the Mufassal Board should be embodied in Ordinances.

43. In discussing the proposed reorganisation of the Teaching University in Calcutta, we have recommended that the courses should in future be defined in homogeneous and carefully planned 'pass groups' and 'honours schools.'¹ What is there said applies with equal cogency to the mufassal colleges. And in view of this change in the planning of the curricula, we suggest that it might, as a rule, be advisable to grant affiliation not in particular subjects regarded as isolated units, but in each pass group or honours school regarded as a whole. We suggest also that conditions of affiliation should include reasonable conditions as to the

¹ See Chapter XXXIV, paras. 35-47.

pay and tenure of teachers, and as to the mode of government of the colleges.¹ Finally, we urge the importance of a full and careful inspection of the colleges. This should take place, not necessarily every year, but as frequently as may be required, and not less than once in three years. The inspection should be thorough and searching, and should include a detailed analysis of the conditions under which the students live, and of the provision made for their physical training and welfare, as well as of the teaching equipment of the college. Its findings should be embodied in a single general report, which should describe, and commend for imitation, any useful new departures or methods of dealing with particular problems which had been worked out by any of the colleges.

44. It is in our judgment important that the financial needs of higher education in Bengal should be considered as a whole. With a view to this it seems to us that Government may find it desirable to require that all requests for additional financial assistance should be laid before it at the same time, and should be accompanied by the comments and recommendations of a body capable of taking into consideration the needs of the whole province, and of weighing the relative importance of various demands. For this reason we have already recommended² that all requests for financial aid from Government made by Calcutta colleges should be forwarded through the Executive Council, who should be required to transmit them with any comments it thought fit. The same provision ought to be made in regard to the mufassal colleges. As in the case of Calcutta, we believe that Government will find it desirable that requests from Government colleges should in general be dealt with in the same way. But, apart from this, the colleges should enjoy complete financial autonomy and responsibility.

VI.

45. The scheme outlined above is intended to secure for the mufassal colleges a certain degree of academic autonomy, and

¹ Compare the provisions suggested for the two types of colleges in Calcutta, Chapter XXXIV, paras. 121-129 and 144. These provisions will not be in all respects fully applicable to the mufassal colleges, but they will provide a basis for the definition of new conditions of affiliation by the Executive Commission.

² Chapter XXXIV, para. 140.

some adaptation of their courses of study to their own resources and to the needs of their students, under the ægis and supervision of the Teaching University in Calcutta. This will, we believe, be advantageous at once to these colleges and to Calcutta; and it will embody the advantages claimed for the proposal to establish a University of Bengal, while retaining the real advantages of the connexion with Calcutta, to which the colleges and public opinion naturally attach so much importance. But more than this is needed. It is necessary to find some means of selecting, without injustice to the rest, those colleges which may be regarded as 'potential universities' (or, as we propose they should be called, University Colleges), and of giving to them opportunities of further development, and grounds for appealing to the patriotism and public spirit of their districts.

* 46. With this end in view we propose that special treatment should be given to the strongest and most progressive colleges. As a means of distinguishing the stronger colleges from the rest we propose that the general line of differentiation which has been suggested between the 'constituent' colleges and the 'temporarily affiliated' colleges¹ in the city of Calcutta should be followed, so far as it is appropriate, in the case of the mufassal colleges also. We suggest that on this basis some such conditions as the following might be imposed:—

- (a) A college desiring to be recognised as a University College should be required to provide separate teaching, under a distinct staff, for students in the intermediate stage, so long as these students remain attached to it; it should also be required either to cease accepting intermediate students, or to organise a separate administration for them, in a separate building, as soon as the Executive Council (or, in the period of reconstruction, the Executive Commission) of the University decides that this can fairly be done. Not until these conditions are met should the college be recognised as belonging to the higher grade.
- (b) It should further undertake to provide secure conditions of tenure, for a term of at least three years, for the

¹ See Chapter XXXIV, paras. 121-140 and 141-160.

great majority of its teachers, to appoint a chief teacher, or head of the department, in each of the principal subjects of study, and to pay no salary (for full-time work) of less than Rs. 125 *per mensem* or, for heads of departments, of less than Rs. 300 *per mensem*.

- (c) It should further be required to provide under normal conditions at least one teacher for every 20 students. In Calcutta we have proposed that the constituent colleges should be required to provide at least one teacher for every 25 students. But, as the teaching resources of every Calcutta college are increased by the teaching resources of the University and of the other constituent colleges, this provision would be insufficient to meet the needs of isolated mufassal colleges; a higher proportion is therefore necessary in these colleges.
- (d) It should further undertake to submit its principal teachers individually, when appointed, for approval or recognition by the University, subject to limitations similar to those which have been suggested in Calcutta.
- (e) Finally, since the rank of a University College ought not to be conferred upon an institution which provides only for pass work, a college which aims at this rank should be required to satisfy the University that it is capable of providing teaching in at least two or three honours schools of the new type proposed for the Teaching University in Calcutta.

47. We suggest that these principles, or others not less exacting, should be adopted in drawing a line between those mufassal colleges which should enjoy the higher privileges of University Colleges and those which should remain in the ordinary relation of affiliation; and that the Executive Council (or Commission) of the University should be charged with the duty of making proposals regarding the application of these principles in particular cases. The names of colleges admitted to the privileges of university colleges should be embodied in a statute, which should only be made or altered with the approval of the provincial Government concerned.

48. Colleges which are strong enough to comply with the conditions defined above should be admitted, with substantial representation of their teaching staffs, to a special panel of the Mufassal Board, on which representatives of the Academic Council of the University would also sit. These colleges should also have a larger representation than other colleges upon the general Mufassal Board. The object for which the special panel is proposed is to enable the University Colleges, which may be regarded as 'potential universities,' to enjoy a greater degree of academic autonomy than the rest. Each college in this group would be entitled to propose, for the consideration of the panel and the approval of the Academic Council, special books or periods of its own, or special parts of a subject, or special pass groups or honours schools peculiar to itself; it would be entitled also in such cases to propose a special examination in part, or the whole, of a degree course; and both in these cases and in others to propose that the examination of their students should be conducted by the teachers of the college, in conjunction with external examiners appointed by the University.

49. At first, no doubt, these colleges would be content to follow, for the most part, the general courses laid down for the whole of the mufassal colleges. But in course of time—and, we hope, in the course of no long time—the more active and progressive colleges would wish to enjoy freedom to devise special courses suited to the needs of their own students or of their own districts. The suggested arrangement would enable them to do this. They would thus enjoy a growing degree of autonomy, always under the tutelage of the parent University, and would be gradually made ready to stand on their own feet.

50. For the development of the University Colleges, just because they are 'potential universities,' not only freedom is needed, but funds. We hope and believe that the ambition set before these colleges would help them to appeal, with effect, to the patriotism, public spirit, and generosity of their districts; and this should constitute the main source of their increasing strength. But we consider that some help should also be given out of public funds; and we therefore recommend that Government should decide what resources it can spare for the further development of university education in Bengal outside Calcutta and Dacca, and

should ask the Executive Council (or Commission) of the University for recommendations as to the way in which these funds would be most usefully expended, more especially for the improvement of those colleges which have fulfilled the conditions for recognition as University Colleges.

51. The proposals contained in this chapter seem to us to indicate the only mode of dealing effectively with the problem of the mufassal colleges. The scheme preserves for the mufassal colleges that connexion with the University of Calcutta which they all value, and gives to their work such *cachet* as it can obtain from a Calcutta guarantee as to its quality. At the same time it does not hamper the progress of the Teaching University by compelling it to restrict its pace to that at which it will be practicable for the weaker mufassal colleges to move; and it also gives to the mufassal colleges some degree of academic freedom, and of the responsibility which goes with it, and some share in the control of their own curricula. But it further provides at once a stimulus and an opportunity to the stronger colleges to make the most of their resources, and a chance of enjoying growing freedom in teaching and study. It holds before them an inspiring prospect, distant, but not unattainable, and capable of being compassed by energy and zeal—the prospect of one day rising to the dignity of independent universities, and of playing a great and distinctive part in the intellectual progress of their own districts, and of Bengal as a whole.

VII.

52. At present university education in Burma is under the control of the University of Calcutta. Not only do the two Burmese colleges (both in Rangoon) count among the affiliated colleges of Calcutta, but actually all the high schools of Burma have to be formally recognised by the Syndicate in Calcutta. The establishment of a university in Burma has been under discussion for a number of years; it has been approved in principle by the Government of India; and an admirable site for it has been acquired outside Rangoon. We cordially endorse the importance of establishing such a university. The racial, linguistic, social, and economic conditions existing in Burma are so widely different not only from those of Bengal, but from those of the rest

of India, that its educational needs cannot healthily be treated on exactly similar lines. The existing arrangement is in every way undesirable. It is not fair to Burma; and it imposes upon the University of Calcutta responsibilities of supervision which it is manifestly not in a position to fulfil.

53. The conditions and needs of Burma lie, indeed, beyond our terms of reference; though even from the point of view of Calcutta alone we should feel justified in urging the need for giving academic autonomy to this great and distant province at the earliest practicable date. Some of our number were invited to visit the province and to consider its educational problems. We regret extremely that we were unable to accept the invitation. We trust, however, that the proposals which we have put forward in this report, though designed with a view to the needs of Bengal, may give some assistance to those who are responsible for the organisation of the new university when the time comes for setting it on foot. In particular we would suggest, for the consideration of those concerned, that there is a close analogy between the conditions existing in Dacca and those existing in Rangoon. In both towns there are at present two colleges, a Government college and a private college; and it is possible that the proposals we have made for giving some recognition to the claims of the two Dacca colleges, while at the same time maintaining that unity of control over university teaching which may be regarded as an essential mark of an efficient modern university, will afford some guidance in the not dissimilar conditions of Rangoon.

54. Now that the war, which has been the principal cause of delay, is practically at an end, it may be found possible to proceed at once with the project. On the other hand, it is possible that, in view of the relatively backward state of university education in Burma, and the small number of real university students (above the intermediate stage) contained in the two Rangoon colleges, it may be found desirable to proceed gradually. In that case, we hope that the scheme which we have proposed would serve a useful purpose during a period of transition. If the Rangoon colleges, with the aid of the Government of Burma, can work out some scheme of local co-operation, and if they can, either singly or in conjunction, comply with the conditions laid down above for admission to the special panel of the Mufassal Board of the

Calcutta University, they might regard it as convenient to retain for a time, in this modified form, their connexion with Calcutta. This would enable them to work out gradually their own distinctive schemes of study, while ensuring that there was no sudden change or lowering of standards; it would give them time, also, to build up their resources, and to work out the best relationship between the future university on the one hand, and, on the other, the rest of the educational system and the Government organs which control it. Above all, it would enable them to organise the provision of higher secondary or intermediate education in such a way as to ensure that the new University, when it began its career, was not burdened with school work.

VIII.

55. Strictly speaking, Assam also lies beyond the scope of our reference. But its relations with Bengal are, and always have been, so intimate that no reconstruction of the university system in Bengal so far-reaching as that which we have proposed could fail to affect profoundly the whole educational organisation of Assam. It would in any case have been impossible for us to leave Assam out of our reckoning, and improper not to have consulted those who would be most directly concerned, before proposing changes which cannot but influence their work and their policy. Those of our number who were able to do so therefore gladly accepted the opportunity afforded to us by the kindness of the Chief Commissioner (Sir Archdale Earle) of visiting both the college at Gauhati and the administrative headquarters at Shillong, and of conferring with the Chief Commissioner himself, with his principal educational officers, and with representative leaders of opinion upon educational questions.

56. There has been much talk of the need for establishing a university in Assam; and, although the proposal has not yet reached the stage of being seriously considered by Government, it was strongly advocated by several of the witnesses whom we interviewed during our visit to the province, and as strongly deprecated by others. The assumption which seems to be in the minds both of those who advocate, and of those who oppose, this step appears to be that a University of Assam must necessarily be of the affiliating type, and must bring together under a single

academic control the various colleges of the province. At the same time, the argument most often adduced in favour of the change was that Assam is a distinct province, with languages peculiar to itself, and with a distinctive set of economic, social, and ethnological problems; and, although this consideration was not very clearly put before us by most of the witnesses, it seemed to be implied that a university was necessary in order that these problems might be scientifically investigated, and in order that the curricula pursued by the students might be in some degree adapted to the special needs of the country.

57. We have great sympathy with this point of view. But it seems to us to be inconsistent with the project of organising an affiliating university in Assam. For one of the two Assamese colleges, that of Sylhet, serves a district which is only in an administrative sense part of Assam, being connected racially, linguistically, and economically with Eastern Bengal. The other college, that of Gauhati, serves the true Assamese region, the valley of the Brahmaputra, with almost every part of which the great river brings it into easy communication. Between the two colleges lies the wide barrier of the Khasia and Jaintia hills, inhabited by tribes who are quite distinct from the Assamese of the Brahmaputra valley on the one hand, and from the Bengalis of Sylhet on the other. There are practically no interests in common between these regions; and a university founded at Gauhati for the purpose of serving the specific interests of Assam would in fact be out of touch with the needs and interests of Sylhet.

58. In the judgment of those of us who visited Assam, it is natural that the people of the Sylhet district should feel strong intellectual affinity with Bengal; and that the students of this district, in so far as they are not accommodated in their own local college, should resort, as they actually do, rather to the colleges of Eastern Bengal than to the other Assamese college in Gauhati. There does not seem to us any reason to anticipate that an independent university will arise in Sylhet; and the needs of this district and its college seem likely to be best met by such a system as we have described in the present chapter, whereby the college would be able to send up its candidates for the examinations of the Mufassal Board of the Calcutta University, on which it would be represented. In our judgment the ablest students of Sylhet will probably continue to go to the main centres of education

in Bengal, that is, to Dacca and to Calcutta ; and for this purpose hostels in one or other place for these students might well be provided by the Assam Government. But, apart from this, the funds which are available for the development of higher education in this region would, for the present, be most profitably expended upon the development of a thoroughly efficient and practical training at the intermediate stage.

59. The problem as it affects Gauhati is quite different. Gauhati is the natural centre of the true Assam, with all parts of which it is linked by river and railway communication ; and it ought also to serve the district of the Khasia and Jaintia hills, whose roads mainly lead towards it. Of all the colleges affiliated to the University of Calcutta (with the exception of those of Burma) none has a more clearly defined district to serve than the Cotton College, Gauhati, and none has greater opportunities of special and useful study in many fields, linguistic, literary, historical, archæological, ethnological, economic, geological. In these studies the Teaching University of Calcutta might effectively co-operate. It is already supported, and ought to be yet more fully supported, by the patriotic feeling of the distinctive people whose needs it has to serve. But so long as its courses of study are rigidly defined by the examination requirements of Calcutta it cannot shape these studies with a view to the character and needs of its own people. Beyond all question, Gauhati may rightly aim, and ought to aim, at becoming the seat of a university : not of a mere group of examining boards, but of a powerful, well-organised, consolidated corporation of teachers and students.

60. But we are bound to recognise that, admirable as is its equipment in many respects — and, as we have already noted,¹ the students of Gauhati are in some ways more fortunately situated than those of almost any college in Bengal — this college is as yet far from being strong enough to stand upon its own feet as an independent university ; and to force it prematurely into such a position would be to imperil its progress. What this college needs, as a first stage towards independence, is an opportunity of trying experiments under tutelage, a period of qualified and supervised freedom. We believe that the position it would enjoy if it were

¹ Chapter XIII, para. 133.

enabled to fulfil the conditions for admission to the special panel of the Mufassal Board of the University of Calcutta would precisely meet this need.

61. At the same time it should be equipped with the rudiments of a university system of government. It should have a governing body, partly lay and partly academic, endowed with some degree of financial autonomy, which might be gradually increased, and empowered to deal with questions of general policy, and to appeal in every practicable way to local patriotism for additional support. Alongside of this it should have an Academic Body, or Teachers' Council, which should be given very full powers over all purely academic questions, and (acting through the principal) over the discipline of students. The Assam Valley is not yet ready for a fully independent university. But with some development it will be ready for the recognition of its chief seat of learning as a University College or 'potential university,' enjoying an enlarging degree of autonomy under the tutelage of Calcutta, until the time shall come—which need not be far distant—when it shall be able to stand alone.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

I.

1. In framing recommendations for the improvement of the existing arrangements for the higher education of women, we are deeply conscious of the fact that this is a sphere in which whatever may be done must profoundly influence the whole social system of the country, and that no scheme of reorganisation will have much prospect of success which does not keep this in mind. We fully share the view expressed by His Excellency the Viceroy at the Conference of Directors of Public Instruction held at Delhi in January 1917,¹ that, while "it behoves us to do all in our power to improve women's education, so far as we can do so within the limits laid down for us by social custom," not much can be effected without "a gradual change in public opinion," the achievement of which must depend upon "the support and co-operation of all educated Indians;" and, moreover, that, as His Excellency added, "the co-operation of women" is at least as important as the help of enlightened men. "It is they who know where the shoe pinches; and any purely man-made scheme is foredoomed to failure."

2. We believe, further, that, in the existing stage of development, very special treatment and very careful consideration, by men and women who have given special attention to the subject, and who understand the social conditions by which it is affected, must be necessary. It cannot be right, under such conditions as were described in Chapter XIV, that the problem should be dealt with simply by an extension to girls and women of the methods, curricula and organisation thought appropriate for boys and men, even when these are greatly improved, as we hope our proposals, if accepted, will improve them.

3. Two distinct needs must always be kept in mind in the organisation of women's education: the need of the vast majority who will spend their lives in the *zanana*, whose education will cease at

¹ Report, page 2.

an early age, and who ought to be trained on the one hand to perform their *zanana* duties with interest and knowledge, and on the other to understand and sympathise with the interests and work of their husbands and brothers ; and, secondly, the need of the small but very important minority who will go out into the world to serve their fellows in professional callings, or will play their part in the intellectual activities of the progressive section of Indian society, and want a high training to be enabled to do so.

II.

4. In the case of *pardahnashin* women the most that can be hoped for is that a change in social custom and in public opinion during the next few years may permit the education of girls of the middle classes to be extended to the age of 15 or 16 ; and that a system of secondary schools suited for the needs of girls of this type, and conducted under *pardah* conditions, perhaps on the lines suggested by Rai Lalitmohan Chatterjee Bahadur, and Sister Mary Victoria,¹ may gradually be brought into existence. It is also desirable that *zanana* classes, of the types briefly described in Chapter XIV, should be extended so far as the supply of teachers permits. But as work of this kind does not in any sense lead up to work of a university type, we do not feel called upon to discuss it.

5. The whole of the work in *pardahnashin* secondary schools would necessarily fall under the review of the proposed Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education ; and its highest standards of attainment would approximately be those represented by the examination at the end of the high school course. But we feel that, while the standards should be roughly equivalent, it would be the greatest of blunders completely to identify the course of study of the girls of this type with that of boys at the same age. Their course ought to be planned in view of the fact that it will extend no further, and in view of their future lives. We do not venture to make suggestions as to its content, methods and organisation. These questions ought to be considered by a special body, acting under and reporting to the Board, and consisting very largely of women ; and we therefore recommend that such a body should be constituted by the Board, immediately

¹ See Chapter XIV, paras. 74-76.

it is established, as a Standing Committee mainly consisting of outside members. It is also much to be desired that such a body should have the power of calling into council *purdahnashin* women, by the formation of an advisory committee consisting of women only, meeting under such circumstances that *purdahnashin* women could be members. The Standing Committee, with the aid of its advisory committee, should advise the Board regarding the curriculum desirable for *purdah* schools, the places at which such schools should be established, the qualifications desirable in members of their staffs, and the conditions under which they should be inspected, examined and controlled.

6. We think it reasonable that there should be some form of examination at the end of the course of study of the proposed schools, but that it should not be in any way compulsory. It might be differentiated quite definitely from the corresponding examination for boys and might be conducted (as the small number of candidates would render possible) in part by oral tests, conducted by competent women visiting examiners. As time goes on, it is possible that a small, but perhaps an increasing, number of the girls trained in these schools, and especially of the young widows among them, may, with the permission of their parents or guardians, be willing to proceed to higher courses. In that event, it should be possible, by arrangement with the Board of Women's Higher Education, which we have proposed, to define the conditions under which the leaving examination of the *purdah* schools might be accepted as admitting to higher courses of study.

7. The type of schools which we contemplate as being brought into existence under this system would, as Sister Mary Victoria has pointed out, meet a great need. These schools would, for the girls who used them, replace the elementary schools, in which most *purdah* women now get the only school training they receive; but, of course, the system of elementary schools for girls would continue as it now is, for the use of other classes of girls, under the supervision of the Department of Public Instruction. We feel the development of an adequate system of secondary schools for *purdahnashin* girls to be of such vital social importance that we urge that public money should not be stinted in its creation. At the same time, we feel that this is eminently a field for the

munificence of enlightened Indians, without whose aid and encouragement schools of this type are scarcely likely to come into existence or to thrive.

8. But schools of this type cannot succeed unless and until an adequate supply of qualified teachers is forthcoming. These teachers must, of course, normally be women, though in some Hindu schools of this type the employment of visiting men teachers would not be out of the question. Teachers of the type now employed in elementary schools will not meet the need, and these form the overwhelming majority of the available supply. The educational experience of English women teachers, and their skill in class teaching and in the development of corporate life in schools, will be of great service at this juncture. But care must be taken not to make the new kind of school unacceptable to those among the more orthodox sections of Indian society who, rightly or wrongly, fear the unsettling influence of western women. But it will in any case be indispensable for the development of the new type of school that there should be a large increase in the number of well educated Indian women teachers. These can only be supplied by the women's colleges of the existing type, modified and expanded to meet the changing requirements of the age.

9. Thus the first necessary type of higher education for women, that devised for the use of *pardahnashin* women, is and must be dependent upon the development of the second type, that devised for the use of women who are ready to devote themselves to professional work. We cannot readily imagine any nobler or more inspiring sphere of labour than that which would thus open itself to the women of the more progressive families in India, including the Domiciled Community—that of bridging the growing gulf between the old ways and the new.

III.

10. For the training of women of the second type we conceive that the maintenance of schools and colleges of the existing pattern will continue to be necessary. But we feel that the schools must be saved from the desolating domination of the examination system which now mischievously influences all their work. In our judgment there should be a specially planned course for girls' secondary schools of the *non-purdah* type. Its standards of attainment

should as nearly as possible correspond with that of the boys' schools ; but the content of the course might with advantage be modified, and while the course in these schools need not be so deeply influenced as the course in the *purdah* schools by the conditions of life in the *zanana*, it is much to be desired that there should be as great an approximation as possible in the content of the two schemes, so as to avoid a too sharp differentiation between the two groups of girls. On these points the advice of the Standing Committee on Girls' Education, which we have suggested, would be very valuable to the Board, upon which the responsibility for framing the curricula and conducting the examinations would fall.

11. It would be the duty of the Board to ensure that the standards of attainment and ability represented by the examination at the end of the high school course for girls should correspond to those of the examination for boys, and should afford an equally definite assurance of fitness to proceed to higher work. But this need not imply the use of identical papers, even where the same subjects are offered ; nor should it preclude the use of oral tests, or the weighing of records of school work, which would be practicable in the case of girls' schools, because their number will be small, for a long time to come. The use of such methods, if wisely applied, might have the effect of materially lightening the pressure of examinations, which, as we have seen, has told with special severity upon girls.

12. At the higher secondary, or intermediate, stage in girls' education it will be impossible to follow in detail the methods already suggested in the case of boys. The total number of girls doing work above the high school stage is, and will long continue to be, so small that to provide distinct institutions for the intermediate and degree stages would be wasteful. We therefore propose that in women's colleges the work of the intermediate stage and of the degree stage should continue to be carried on under the same direction and by the same teachers, though so far as possible the intermediate work should be done by school methods. At the same time we urge the desirability of a development of higher secondary or intermediate work at one or two selected high schools. We would in particular recommend that as soon as there is any effective demand for it, this grade of work should be organised at the Eden High School, Dacca.

13. We recommend that at the intermediate stage there should be provided, in all the colleges or schools which take up this work, some training in the methods of teaching, on the plan suggested in Chapter XXXII; and that this subject should be treated as one of the optional subjects capable of being taken at that stage. This will be the easier if, as we shall recommend, training in teaching is also carried on at the higher stages in all the women's colleges, since the same staff could undertake both grades of work. We believe that the prospect of obtaining professional training of this kind would constitute a strong inducement to many women to proceed to the intermediate or higher secondary stage, even in cases where circumstances make it impossible for them to go further.

14. Another purpose which it seems to us very important to meet at the intermediate stage is the provision of the necessary training, in the preliminary scientific subjects, for women intending to enter the medical profession. But it would be unreasonable and wasteful that full provision should be made, in all the colleges, for laboratory instruction in physics, chemistry, botany and zoology. We suggest that, as most of these students will, in the later stages of their careers, attend mixed classes in the medical schools, it ought to be possible to arrange for the use of some of the teachers and laboratories provided for men in the preliminary medical subjects. But as we hold that provision should be made for giving instruction to women, other than those who intend to enter the medical profession, in chemistry and botany at any rate, and probably also in physics, we strongly urge that an attempt should be made adequately to provide for all the subjects of the preliminary medical course by co-operation among the women's colleges in Calcutta.¹

15. The need of co-operation among the colleges is, indeed, not limited to the science subjects; at present, under the system which practically compels each college to provide all the teaching required by its students, there is, in the first place, much waste of teaching strength, and, in the second place, a needlessly limited range of choice is offered to the students. To some extent the difficulty is in theory met by the fact that the classes of the University are open to qualified women students. We agree that this

¹The medical training of women is also referred to in Chapters XXIII and XLIV.

should be done as a matter of principle. But we do not conceal from ourselves the probability that under existing conditions such facilities would be very little used. It is, therefore, in an organised system of co-operation among the women's colleges that we see the best chance of an early and useful extension of the facilities for higher training, and an avoidance of the present waste of teaching resources.

16. Both at the intermediate stage and at the degree stage we feel that there is ground for considering the desirability of adapting the courses of study in such a way that, without any reduction of standards, they may be made more suitable to the needs of women. This does not imply that women should be precluded from taking the same pass groups or honours courses as men. But it does imply that there might be subjects included in one or two of the alternative groups which only women would be likely to take. We do not venture to discuss what these subjects should be, or what place they should find in the degree courses. Just as, in discussing the courses for men, we contented ourselves with defining general principles and leaving the proper university bodies, when constituted, to carry them into effect, so, in regard to women's courses, we feel with even greater force that the working out of these suggestions can best be left to a body specially constituted for the purpose.

17. On all grounds, therefore, it seems to us to be of the first importance that, just as a special Standing Committee on the education of girls should be constituted to advise the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, so a special Board should be constituted in the University of Calcutta to organise the provision of more advanced education for women and to make proposals regarding the adaptation of the university degree courses to the needs of women, subject to the approval of the academic authorities of the University. We consider that such a Board should enjoy a substantial degree of autonomy and should hold, generally, a position in regard to the governing bodies of the University similar to that held by the suggested Board of Mufassal Colleges.¹ The constitution and powers which we propose for this body will be more precisely indicated in the next chapter.

18. We have already made it plain, in Chapter XIV, that the provision of additional training for women in professional subjects,

¹ Chapter XXXV, para. 36, and Chapter XXXVII, paras. 76-82.

particularly in teaching and in medicine, and the inducement of a largely increased number of women to enter these professions, are among the most urgent social needs of Bengal. We recognise that, as Sister Mary Victoria has pointed out,¹ there are also other occupations which women should be urged to take up. But the greatest immediate need is for well-qualified women teachers and for women doctors. It might well be made one of the functions of the Women's Boards suggested above to take these needs into review, and to make suggestions in regard to them, even in those cases where the provision of the necessary instruction would fall to other bodies.

19. In regard to the training of teachers, every promising method should be simultaneously employed, but in our judgment it is important that this work should not be treated as a thing apart, to be carried on only in special institutions, aloof from the ordinary teaching work of school and university courses. The subject will be more fully dealt with in another chapter.² In the meanwhile we would suggest (1) that post-graduate classes in the University Department of Education which we shall propose should be thrown open to women equally with men; (2) that education should be introduced as one of the subjects for the degree, and that instruction for this purpose should be provided by the three Calcutta women's colleges in co-operation; (3) that an introduction to the methods of teaching should be also made one of the possible subjects at the intermediate stage, as has already been suggested in the case of intermediate colleges for men,³ and that this option should be offered in all the women's colleges; (4) that training for the L. T. diploma and for the B. T. degree should be given in the women's colleges on a co-operative system, under the direction and advice of the University Department of Education, which might afford much assistance.

20. But the largest groups of teachers do not now come to the colleges at all: those now trained at the missionary training institutions, at the Hindu Widows' Training School, and at the Eden High School, Dacca. In our judgment it would be desirable that as many as possible of the teachers of this type should take an

¹ See Chapter XIV.

² Chapter XLIII.

³ Chapter XXXII.

intermediate course, with teaching as one of its subjects, and should therefore go to the colleges; if the Eden High School undertakes work of the intermediate grade this arrangement will be greatly facilitated. But a large proportion of those who now undergo training would be unable or unwilling to take such a course. For them special institutions will still have to be maintained.

21. If any such programme is to be carried out—and without a great increase in the number of teachers in training, all progress in women's education must be impossible—a considerable number of well-qualified women teachers, competent to direct training work, and also to conduct intermediate and university classes in other subjects, will be required. The number of Bengali women able to undertake work of this kind is extremely small; and the necessary recruits can only be obtained from Britain or America. We have suggested in Chapter XXXI the maintenance of a corps of teachers with experience gained in other countries, who would be available for employment wherever they may be most needed. Such a corps should include a number of women. Their services should not be limited to Government colleges, but should be freely lent to other institutions.

22. The problem of medical education for women presents many difficult features. The number of women who are willing to attend mixed classes at the medical colleges and schools is very small, being practically limited to the Christian community and the Brahmo Samaj. On the other hand, to create a special medical school in Bengal for women only—which ought (if the difficulties are to be overcome) to be staffed wholly or mainly by women—would at present be too costly to be justifiable in view of the extremely small number of women (over and above those ready to attend mixed classes) who would be competent or willing to take advantage of it. The solution would seem to be that there should be a women's medical college for all India; and it was in the hope of thus solving the difficulty that the Lady Hardinge Medical School for Women was founded at Delhi.

23. Ultimately it may be found desirable and possible to establish in Bengal a medical college or school for women only; this, although it is felt by some to be an unsatisfactory arrangement in the West, may be necessary under Indian conditions. In the meanwhile, we recommend that every facility should be given

women who are ready to attend the existing medical institutions; that, if their preliminary training is not wholly inadequate, they should even be given a preference, in view of the fact that the need for medical women is even greater than the need for medical men; and that, as we have already suggested, an effort should be made to increase the opportunities for obtaining the necessary training in preliminary scientific subjects. We also recommend that the proposed Women's Boards should be brought into the closest possible contact with the work of the Delhi women's medical school, and should hold its requirements in view in organising the preliminary scientific training in Calcutta.

IV.

24. Our recommendations in regard to women's education are couched in general terms, because we feel that the detailed consideration of this very complex and difficult problem can only be profitably undertaken by bodies of men and women better qualified to deal with it than we can claim to be, and better able to appeal to the enlightened public opinion of Bengal. In the last resort, it must be upon this opinion that all possibility of progress must depend. If the leaders of opinion in Bengal are ready to recognise the supreme importance of a rapid development of women's education and of an adaptation of the system to Indian needs and conditions, and if they are willing to spend time and thought and money in bringing it about, the question will gradually solve itself. Otherwise there must lie before this country a tragic and painful period of social dislocation and misunderstanding, and a prolongation of the existing disregard of those manifold ills in a progressive society which only an educated womanhood can heal.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALCUTTA.

I.—Preliminary survey.

1. In an earlier chapter¹ we have shown that the existing system of government of Calcutta University is ill-adapted even to the purposes of an affiliating university. Its supreme governing body, the Senate, is not large enough to be representative of all the interests that should find expression in a great provincial university; on the other hand, it cannot be made an expert body capable of dealing with all the aspects of the teaching work of a university, nor are the purely academic interests adequately represented in the faculties and boards of studies as now constituted. When an attempt was made, under the post-graduate scheme, to rectify this defect, the inevitable result was to intensify the unfortunate cleavage between undergraduate and post-graduate work by the establishment of two parallel sets of bodies. The executive body of the University, the Syndicate, is loaded by so great a mass and variety of functions, at once academic and administrative, that it is swamped. No small body could possibly be so constituted as to be capable of dealing with all these widely different duties. At the same time, the system denies to both the Senate and Syndicate effective educational or financial control; not only matters of principle, but matters of detail, can only be altered by an extremely elaborate procedure, which involves much delay and irritation.

2. If this system is inappropriate for an affiliating university, it is still more inappropriate for a university of the type which has been described in the foregoing chapters: a university which must, in the first place, deal with the whole system of teaching and research both in the University itself and in a group of constituent colleges in Calcutta; in the second place with a group of technical and professional institutes and colleges, and with the task of developing

¹ Chapter XXVII.

vocational training on a scale such as Bengal has never known before; in the third place with a group of mufassal colleges, which require separate treatment, and some of which ought to be encouraged and helped to develop ultimately into independent local universities; in the fourth place with the special and difficult problem of higher education for women; in the fifth place with the work of a group of 'temporarily affiliated colleges' in Calcutta, whose maintenance will be necessary for some time. Nor is this the end of the catalogue of distinctive and important functions which, as our enquiry has shown, it is necessary that the reconstituted University of Calcutta should undertake. It must bear a large part, under the supervision of Government, and in co-operation with the University of Dacca and with the representatives of the industrial, professional and commercial interests of Bengal, in re-shaping the system of secondary and intermediate education.

3. If the University of Calcutta is to be enabled to undertake all these functions with any prospect of success, it must be equipped with a system of government more carefully devised for the purpose than that which it now possesses; a system which will combine a proper representation of public opinion and of all the interests concerned in the healthy development of the educational system, with the maintenance of a proper degree of influence and authority for the best expert opinion; while at the same time the supervisory authority of Government, and its deep concern in the matters with which the University has to deal, must be properly provided for, without imposing upon Government minute and detailed responsibilities which its officers cannot be reasonably expected to fulfil. Above all, the system must be elastic, and capable of easy adaptation to the needs of a complex and changing society; and it must be one which will bring home effectively to each contributory element in this great co-operative undertaking a full sense of responsibility for its special share in the task of turning the university system of Bengal into a living and growing system, which has to render to the community services far greater and more varied than it has hitherto been able to render. Responsibility can only be made real when it is associated with power; and therefore the powers of the various constituent elements in the system must be made real—that is to say, the autonomy not merely of the University as a whole, or of its supreme body, but of

its distinctive parts, must be increased. Delegation, and a clear definition and demarcation of functions, are necessary if the complex and varied work which we have described is to be well done.

4. We shall therefore propose a complete departure from the system of university government which has been traditional in India ever since 1857 ; and to mark the change, and to avoid confusion, we shall suggest the adoption of a series of new names for the various bodies which we shall propose. It will be convenient if at the outset we describe in outline the main structure of the scheme which we propose, before proceeding to describe its parts in detail, in order that the relations of these parts to one another should be clear in the mind of the reader.

5. In the first place we propose that the University of Calcutta should cease to stand in a relation of special intimacy to the Government of India ; but that the general powers of supervision over all the universities which the Government of India exercises even now, and will, we hope, exercise more fully in the future, should be formally expressed by the assumption by the Governor-General of the office of Visitor. The great value and importance which we attach to the visitatorial functions of the Governor-General will be more fully developed in a later chapter.¹ We propose that a new and more organic connexion should be established between the Government of Bengal and the University ; that the Governor of Bengal should in future be Chancellor of the University ; but that (as will be seen later) his functions in that capacity should be in many respects widely different from those of the Chancellors of existing Indian universities.

6. In the second place we propose to set up a large and very representative body, to be known as the *Court*, which will perform the function of representing public opinion in Bengal, and the various interests which the University has to serve, in a way which has never been possible to the existing Senate. We propose that the Court's assent should be required for fundamental legislative proposals, but not for the details of regulations ; that it should exercise a general supervision over the finance of the University ; and that the whole progress and work of the University should pass under its review and criticism. At the same time, since a very large body of

¹ See Chapter I, paras. 43-55.

this kind cannot profitably meet very often—especially if representatives from all parts of Bengal are to be included in it—and cannot advantageously discuss details, we propose that its meetings should be infrequent, but that it should elect a standing Committee of Reference to consult on various matters (which will be defined later) with the Executive Council, to which the detail of administrative work will be entrusted.

7. In the third place we propose to set up a small body, to be known as the *Executive Council*. During the period of reconstruction, when it will be necessary that rapid action should be taken, and therefore that exceptional responsibilities should be thrown upon a powerful and specially constituted body, we propose that the place of the Executive Council should be taken, with additional powers, by an Executive Commission. The main duties of the Executive Council will be financial and administrative, and it will have to co-ordinate the work of the various sections of the University. It will have considerable legislative powers, within the limits of the main body of University legislation. It will not, as a rule, be concerned with the details of purely academic business.

8. In the fourth place we propose to institute a supreme academic body, to be known as the *Academic Council*, which will be primarily concerned with the academic work of the Teaching University of Calcutta and its constituent colleges, and will consist mainly of university and college teachers. It will be the final authority for the great bulk of ordinary academic business; it will initiate university legislation bearing upon courses of study and examination; and its participation will be required in all such legislation. While primarily concerned with the work of the Teaching University in Calcutta, it will have certain functions of review and criticism in regard to the other aspects of the University's work, carried on by the special Boards described below. Under the Academic Council will be other academic bodies, Faculties and Boards of Studies, also composed mainly of teachers.

9. For the work of the mufassal colleges, we propose, as has been already indicated,¹ the establishment of a *Mufassal Board*, which will include representatives of all the colleges concerned, and will have a special panel for the more advanced colleges. The Mufassal

¹ Chapter XXXV, para 36.

Board's work will be, in all financial and administrative matters, under the control of the Executive Council, and, in certain purely academic matters, its proceedings will be subject to review by the Academic Council.

10. A similar Board, with substantial powers, will be proposed for Women's Education; and it will stand in a similar relation to the Executive and Academic Councils. Certain other Boards or Standing Committees, of a less important kind, will also be recommended. Not the least important of these will be a Muslim Advisory Committee, the creation of which is recommended as a means of securing (in addition to other methods which we shall propose) that the special point of view of Musalmans in all university questions shall be adequately expressed and assured of consideration.

11. We have elsewhere proposed¹ that the direction of secondary and intermediate education in Bengal, and the conduct of the examinations necessary at these stages, should be placed (subject to the ultimate control of Government) under a distinct Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, upon which the Universities of Calcutta and Dacca, the Hindu and Muslim communities, and the industrial, professional and commercial interests, should be effectively represented. Corresponding arrangements should also be made for Assam and Burma. This will relieve the University of the difficult and often vexatious business of recognising schools and carrying on school-examinations which at present occupies so much of the time of its controlling bodies, and will enable these bodies, as reconstituted, to devote the whole of their strength to their primary work—the development of higher teaching and research.²

II.—University legislation.

12. One of the greatest defects of the existing system is that the legislation (by whomsoever enacted) which governs the activities of the university is unduly rigid, and difficult to alter or expand so as to meet new needs. The existing body of university law consists of (a) the Incorporating Act of 1857 and the Universities Act of 1904, which can only be altered by the Imperial Legislative Council, and (b) the Regulations, which were originally made, under the Act of 1904, by the Government of India, and can only be

¹ Chapter XXXI, para. 25, *et seq.*

² *Ibid.*, paras. 29 and 30, for suggested transitional arrangements.

altered by the Senate with the consent of the Government of India. No distinction is at present drawn between regulations dealing with fundamental questions and regulations dealing with minor details; all proposals for change have to go through the same slow and elaborate process.

13. In order to attain greater elasticity and adaptability, and to avoid the needless friction which is apt to result from the present system, we propose to distinguish between four different types or grades of university legislation. They will be differentiated according to their relative importance, and the mode of altering or adding to them will differ for each grade.

14. In the first place we propose that a special *Act* should be passed by the Imperial Legislative Council for Calcutta University, and that this Act should repeal the Act of 1857 and (so far as it concerns Calcutta University) the Act of 1904, embodying such of their provisions as remain relevant to the new conditions. We propose that this Act should define in very general terms the powers and constitution of the University of Calcutta, doing little more than to enumerate the principal organs of university government and to define their main functions.

15. The terms of the Act should be elaborated, and in particular the constitution and powers of the various academic bodies should be set out in fuller detail, in a number of *Statutes*. The first Statutes should form a schedule to the Act. But the Act itself should include a clause permitting the Statutes to be added to or amended by the Court of the University, consistently with the provisions of the Act, and subject to the approval of the Governor of Bengal in Council. As this arrangement would give to the Court of the University, in conjunction with the Government of Bengal, the power of amending Statutes originally made by the Imperial Legislative Council, it might at first sight appear to be an invasion of the supreme legislative prerogatives of that body. But this power, conferred by the Act, would in fact be exercised by delegation, and it would be exercised by a body which would be, in a degree hitherto unknown, representative of all the interests affected by the work of the University. This would render possible a much greater elasticity than now exists, and would facilitate the development and improvement of the university system. Thus (to take an example) a Statute might provide for the creation of a Mufassal Board such as we

have advocated. But if the mufassal colleges develop in the way we have indicated as likely, it might become desirable to alter the composition and powers of the Mufassal Board; this could be done, without much difficulty, in the manner indicated. Statutes would deal only with questions of the first importance, and with general principles; and it is right that these should not be too lightly altered, and that Government should be consulted. The procedure suggested is similar to that followed in the modern British universities whose Statutes can only be altered with the approval of the Privy Council.

16. The ordinary body of Regulations governing the daily work of the University ought, subject to the provisions of the Statutes, to be capable of ready and easy alteration, especially in a teaching university, whose courses of study may naturally be expected to vary according to the special studies and capacities of the teachers. We therefore propose that the Executive Council (or Executive Commission) should be empowered to make *Ordinances* on all matters not inconsistent with the provisions of the Act and Statutes, such Ordinances to have immediate effect, subject to the following provisos:—

- (i) Ordinances dealing with purely academic matters (degree courses and examinations and the discipline of students) should require the assent of the Academic Council, and should in general be initiated by that body.
- (ii) The Chancellor of the University should have the right of vetoing¹ any Ordinances, which should be communicated to him as soon as made.
- (iii) All Ordinances made during the academic year should be submitted to the Court at a statutory meeting, and the Court should have power, by a majority of not less than two-thirds, to cancel any such Ordinance, but not to amend it.

But since this procedure might involve long delays, it should not be necessary to wait for the confirmation of the Court before taking action under the terms of Ordinances made by the Executive Council, and action so taken should not be retrospectively

¹ Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad thinks that Ordinances of a non-academic nature, particularly those dealing with communal representation, should be subject to the approval of the Chancellor.

invalidated if the Court subsequently refused its confirmation. In general, the mere expression of an adverse opinion by the Court would be enough to ensure reconsideration. But it would be undesirable that the Court should have the power to interfere too easily with the settled judgment of the active governing bodies of the University, since this would be apt to introduce confusion, and to undermine the sense of responsibility of these bodies. We believe that the methods we have suggested will secure a real flexibility, while at the same time ensuring that all changes will be submitted to effective criticism from every relevant point of view.

17. Finally, there is much of the minor detail of university regulations which, so long as the main principles are safeguarded by Statute or Ordinance, need not be surrounded by even that amount of safeguard which is necessary in the case of Ordinances. We suggest, therefore, that the various bodies of the University might with advantage be empowered, subject to the provisions of the Act, the Statutes and the Ordinances, to pass *Regulations* bearing upon such details. Thus an Ordinance, after defining the constituent elements of a particular honours school or pass group, might empower the Faculty concerned, subject to the approval of the Academic Council, to make such Regulations as might be necessary to give effect to the Ordinance in detail; and similar powers might be allowed, in each case by a Statute or an Ordinance, to any of the constituted bodies of the University, such as the Mufassal Board, to make Regulations within the sphere defined by Ordinance.

III.—*The Visitor of the University.*

18. We recommend that the Governor-General should be the Visitor of the University, and should in that capacity have the right, from time to time, and in such manner as he shall think fit, to direct an inspection of, or enquiry into, the work of the University. Should the Government of India decide to establish a special organisation to deal with University questions, the visitatorial functions of the Governor-General might well be performed with the aid of this organisation.¹

¹ See Chapters XXVIII and L.

IV.—*The Officers of the University.*

19. Passing to the detailed analysis of the system which we propose, we have first to deal with the Officers of the University. These should be the Chancellor, the Vice-Chancellor, the Treasurer, the Registrar, the Superintendent of Examinations and the Librarian.

20. The *Chancellor* should be the Governor of Bengal for the time being. He should be the Chief Officer of the University and President of the Court, and should, whenever possible, preside at Convocations for the conferment of degrees. The other powers and duties which we propose should be undertaken by the Chancellor will be defined later in this chapter.¹

21. The *Vice-Chancellor* should be appointed for a term of not less than five years, and might be appointed until such age of retirement as may be determined by Ordinance in respect of this office. In the first instance, after the passing of the Act, the Vice-Chancellor should be appointed by the Governor-General in Council for such period as he may determine. His successors should be appointed by the Chancellor after report from the Executive Council (or Executive Commission). The Vice-Chancellor should be the chief executive officer of the University. In the absence of the Chancellor he should preside at meetings of the Court and at convocations for the conferment of degrees. He should be *ex-officio* a member of the Executive Council, and a member and chairman of the Academic Council, and should be entitled to be present and to speak at any meeting of any constituted body of the University, but not to vote unless he is a member of the body concerned. He should be responsible for the discipline of the University. In view of the importance and the exacting nature of the functions entrusted to him, it is essential that the Vice-Chancellor should be a salaried officer, and should devote his whole time to his work. Further, in view of the complexity of the task of organising and directing the University, and of representing it in negotiations with Government and with various educational bodies, it is of the greatest importance that the Vice-Chancellor should be a man of high academic standing, distinguished record and ripe experience. In order to express in definite terms our sense of the high importance of this

¹ They are also summarised in Chapter L.

office, and of the status and dignity which should be attached to it, we suggest that the Vice-Chancellor should receive a personal salary and an entertainment and hospitality allowance equivalent in the aggregate to the stipend of a High Court Judge. He should contribute 5 per cent of his salary towards his retiring allowance, the funds of the University meeting this with an equivalent annual contribution.

22. The *Treasurer* should be appointed by the Chancellor on the nomination of the Executive Council for a period of not less than three years. He should be an honorary officer, selected on the ground of his distinction in finance and administration. He should be *ex-officio* a member of the Executive Council and of its Finance Committee, and should be responsible for the presentation of the annual estimates and statements of accounts, and, subject to the direction of the Executive Council, for the management of the property, investments, income and expenditure of the University.

23. The *Registrar* should be a salaried whole-time officer, appointed by the Executive Council for such period as may be fixed by Ordinance in respect of this office. He should be responsible for the official correspondence of the University, for the direction of its office staff and for the record of the proceedings of its various governing bodies. He should be entitled to be present and to speak, but not to vote, at meetings of the Executive Council, the Academic Council, and such other bodies as Ordinance may determine. As the smooth working of the University must in a large degree depend upon the efficiency of the Registrar, and as it is for this reason very important that his prestige and standing should be equivalent to that of the senior professors of the University, we feel that the salary attached to this office should be substantial (say Rs. 1,200—1,500 *per mensem*).

24. The *Superintendent of Examinations* should be a whole-time salaried officer, appointed by the Executive Council.

25. The *Librarian* should be appointed by the Executive Council on the recommendation of the Academic Council. He should have the salary and status of a university professor, and should be *ex-officio* a member of the Academic Council.

V.—*The Court of the University.*

26. It is in our judgment essential that the Court of the University should be so constituted as to represent every important element in the public opinion of the areas specially served by the University, and every kind of expert judgment whose criticism on university policy would be of value. A body designed to serve such a purpose should be constituted in a different way from the existing Senate. It should, in our judgment, consist in part of *ex-officio* members, and in part of elected members, the nominated element being reduced to subordinate proportions. The suggestions embodied in the following paragraphs represent not so much precise and definite proposals as an indication of the kind of body we should desire to see constituted.

27. The Court should include—

(A) The following *ex-officio* members :—

The Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellor (if any) and Treasurer of the University.

The Vice-Chancellors of all the other Indian universities, or their nominees.

The Members of the Executive and Academic Councils of the University.

The Members of the Executive Council of the Governor-General for Revenue and Agriculture, for Commerce and Industry, and for Education.

The Lieutenant-Governor of Burma and the Chief Commissioner of Assam, so long as the colleges of these provinces continue to be attached to the University.

The Members of the Executive Council of the Governor of Bengal.

The Chief Justice of Bengal.

The Lord Bishop of Calcutta.

The Directors of Public Instruction for Bengal, Burma¹ and Assam.¹

The Directors of the Archaeological, Geological, Botanical and Zoological Surveys.

The Surgeon-General with the Government of Bengal.

The Chief Engineer, Public Works Department, and the Secretary to the Public Works Department (Irrigation Branch).

The Director of Agriculture, Bengal.

The Sanitary Commissioner, Bengal.

The Advocate-General, Bengal.

The Government Pleader, High Court, Calcutta.

The Chairman of the Calcutta Improvement Trust.

The Chairman of the Corporation of the City of Calcutta.

The Chairman of the Calcutta Port Trust.

The President of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

The President of the Bangiya Sahitya Parishad, Calcutta.

¹ So long as these provinces continue to be associated with the University of Calcutta.

The President of the Sanskrit Association.

The Chairman of the Council and the Librarian of the Imperial Library.

The Chairman of the Trustees of the Indian Museum.

The Deans of Faculties of the University.

The Professors and Readers of the University.

The Principal of every college entitled to present candidates for degrees in the University of Calcutta.

The number of *ex-officio* members thus included would be between 150 and 200. Many of them, of course, would be elected officers of the bodies which they represent, and a majority would consist of teachers of the University. Every institution represented in this list ought to have an opportunity of making its voice heard in university affairs.

28. (B) We next propose a large group of members who would sit, so to speak, in their own right:—

(a) All members of the Senate of the University of Calcutta at the date of the commencement of the Act, and all Honorary Fellows of the University, should be life members of the Court.

(b) Donors of not less than Rs. 50,000 to the University or to one of its colleges for a purpose approved by the Executive Council or Commission should be life members of the Court, subject to the approval of the Chancellor.

(c) Donors of not less than Rs. 10,000 to the University or to one of its colleges for a purpose approved by the Executive Council or Commission should be members of the Court for a period of ten years, subject to the approval of the Chancellor.

(d) Associations or companies contributing not less than Rs. 5,000 *per annum* to the University or one of its colleges for a purpose approved by the Executive Council or Commission, and for a period of not less than five years, should be entitled to appoint two members to the Court so long as the contribution is continued.

We attach great value to this element in the membership of the Court, since those included in it would obviously be men who had shown in the most practical way their interest in university work.

29. (C) The next category of members of the Court would consist of *representatives of non-academic bodies*. We suggest that these should include:—

(a) Five non-official members of the Bengal Legislative Council, to be elected by the non-official members of the Council.

(b) Five representatives of the Judges of the High Court.

(c) A representative or representatives of each of the following bodies, the number in each case to be fixed by Statute:—The Calcutta Corporation; the Bengal Chamber of Commerce; the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce; the Marwari Association; the Mining and Geological Institute

the Institution of Mechanical Engineers (Indian branch); the Bank of Bengal; and such other public bodies as might be determined from time to time by Statute.

30. (D) There should also be a number of *Academic Representatives*, as follows :—

(a) One or more representatives of the University of Dacca, in addition to the Vice-Chancellor.

(b) One representative (other than the Principal) of the Governing Body of every college entitled to present candidates for degrees in the University.

(c) Five representatives of each Faculty in the University.

(d) Representatives of the Mufassal Board, of the Board of Women's Education and of the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, the number in each case to be determined by Statute.

(e) Representatives of (i) the Registered Teachers of the Calcutta Colleges, (ii) the Registered Teachers of the Mufassal Colleges, (iii) the Registered non-Muslim graduates, (iv) Registered Muslim graduates, the number of representatives in each case and the duration of their service, to be determined by Statute, and the mode of election by Ordinance.

The number of representatives of graduates should, in our judgment, be substantial—considerably larger than it now is. At present the electoral qualification for graduates is that (apart from doctors and masters) only graduates of ten years' standing may vote. We regard this limitation as a mistake. By the time they have reached a standing of ten years, graduates are apt to lose touch with the University; and any criticism or advice which they may offer is apt to be out of touch with the current needs of the University. We therefore recommend that the period of qualification should be reduced to three years.

(f) Representatives of the principals and teachers of intermediate colleges and secondary schools, the number and the mode of election to be determined by Statute.

(g) Representatives of the Muslim community, to be elected by such bodies or constituencies, and in such numbers, as may be determined by Statute.

31. Finally we recommend (E) that the Chancellor should have the power of nominating a certain number of members, under two categories :—

(a) Not more than a certain number, to be fixed by Statute, nominated by the Chancellor¹ for a period of five years, of whom some may be representatives of particular communities not adequately represented; and

¹ Dr. Zia-ud-Din Ahmad wishes to note that the Musalmans of Bengal desire that at least 30 per cent. of the non-European members of the Court should be Musalmans; and that the nominating power of the Chancellor under this clause should be so exercised as to secure this result, should it not have been attained under other clauses.

(b) Life members appointed by the Chancellor on the ground of their eminence or attainments in any branch of learning, or on the ground that they have been eminent benefactors of the University or any of its colleges, or are distinguished for services rendered to the cause of education generally.

32. It is obvious that a body constituted on these lines would be large. It is not possible to name a definite number, since many of the categories would overlap; but the total would certainly not be less than four or five hundred. It would constitute a body representative of all that was best in the intellectual life of Bengal; and the fact that the interest of so many different aspects of the national life was enlisted in the service of the University, and that its policy was open to formal and public criticism from so many sides, would be a source of very great strength and enrichment.

33. At the same time it must be obvious that a body of this character could not be expected to meet with great frequency, or to concern itself with the minutiae of university policy. Apart from other difficulties, the mere cost of travelling allowances for frequent meetings would make a grave inroad upon the funds available for university education. We suggest that the Court should have one necessary meeting in each year, to be known as the Annual Meeting, at which the most important business would be transacted; and that other meetings should be summoned as required, either by resolution of the Executive Council, or by the Vice-Chancellor, or by a requisition signed by at least 50 members of the Court. We think that the quorum should be fairly high—not less than fifty.

34. The most useful functions of the Court would be those of watchfulness and criticism, and of keeping the University in touch with the movements of public opinion on educational questions. These are functions which no existing body is able adequately to perform; and the formal definition of the powers of the Court should hold these functions in view, without diminishing the responsibility of the working organs of the University by leaving them liable to be overridden on points of detail. In particular, the Court would receive, from the Executive and Academic Councils, a full annual report on the working of the University as a whole, together with statements of accounts. These should be printed and circulated some weeks before the annual meeting of the Court. They would keep all the best opinion in Bengal acquainted with the development of university work, and the discussion of

the reports would give ample opportunity for criticisms and suggestions.

35. Besides this, the Court would have important legislative functions to perform. All proposals for new Statutes, or for the amendment or repeal of existing Statutes, would be laid before the Court by the Executive Council. The Court should, we suggest, have power to reject or refer back such proposals, but not to amend them. Its assent would be required before they were submitted for final sanction to the Governor of Bengal in Council. The fundamental legislation of the University would thus depend upon the assent of the Court. Further, all the Ordinances made by the Executive Council during the year should be submitted to the Court at its annual meeting; and the Court should have power, by a majority of two-thirds of those present, to cancel any Ordinance, but not to amend it in detail, since a detailed discussion of such matters could not profitably be conducted in so large a body. We suggest, further, that the assent of the Court, or in the case of urgency, of its Committee of Reference, should be required for the conferment of honorary degrees, which would in the first instance be proposed by the Academic Council, and should require also the previous assent of the Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor.

36. We suggest further that estimates of the income and expenditure of the University for the coming year should be laid before the Court at its Annual Meeting, and should be open to its criticism. But, since the disturbance of carefully considered estimates by a casual vote in a very large body might lead to great confusion, we think that there should be definite limits imposed, not upon the criticisms that might be put forward, but upon the power of the Court to introduce changes. We have carefully considered the best means of securing under normal conditions the ultimate control of the Court over expenditure, while at the same time avoiding the confusion which might arise from unconsidered changes, and have come to the conclusion that the best mode would be that the Court should elect a standing Committee of Reference, to consult with the Executive Council on all projects of substantial new expenditure, and with other powers which will be defined below.

37. We propose that the Committee of Reference should consist of the Vice-Chancellor and the Treasurer, *ex-officio*, together with

28 members of the Court, none of whom should be members of the Executive Council. In view of the great importance of securing an adequate representation of Muslim interests, we suggest that at least eight members should be specially representative of their interests ; the mode of election to be determined by Statute. Members of the Committee should normally hold office for four years, two Muslim members and five other members being annually elected ; the order in which the original members should retire being fixed by ballot. We propose that the Executive Council should communicate the estimates for the year to the Committee of Reference at least six weeks before they are communicated to the Court, and that the Committee should have the power, within a reasonable time before the meeting of the Court, to take objection to any new item of non-recurring expenditure of not less than Rs. 10,000, or any item of recurring expenditure of not less than Rs. 3,000.¹ The Committee should have the right to see any reports of the Academic or Executive Councils bearing on the proposed expenditure, and to hold joint meetings with the Executive or Academic Councils or both ; at such joint meetings the Chancellor, or in his absence the Vice-Chancellor, should preside. The Committee of Reference would thus be in a position to guide the Court in the discussion of the estimates. Should the Committee formally object to any proposals for new expenditure, it would be for the Court to decide whether the expenditure should be allowed or not ; but the Court should not have the right to reject any proposals which had not been objected to by the Committee, though it might report on such proposals to the Executive Council. We suggest also that the Committee should be consulted by the Executive Council on any proposal for the revision of the estimates during the year, or for special provisional estimates. The quorum of the Committee should be fifteen. During the period of office of the Executive Commission, while the new organisation of the University is being brought into operation, it seems essential that the Commission should not be hampered in its work by the necessity of constant conference ; and that, so long as the Executive Commission continues, the functions of the Committee of Reference should be advisory only, and reference to it should be optional.

¹ In the case of any difference of opinion as to what constituted 'a single item of expenditure,' the decision should lie with the Chancellor.

38. On the basis of the provisions set out above, we believe that the Court would exercise a real influence and ultimate control over the policy of the University, first by being kept acquainted with and by discussing the general progress of the University, secondly by the necessity of obtaining its assent for all changes in fundamental legislation, and thirdly by the exercise of a real supervision, through the Committee of Reference, over the expenditure of the University. At the same time the responsibility of the more active governing bodies would not be undermined.

VI.—The Executive Council.

39. The actual management of university business on the financial and administrative sides ought to be in the hands of a small and workmanlike body, which should include men of wide administrative experience, and also some spokesmen of the academic point of view, of the interests of Government, and of the other branches of education. We propose that, within its defined sphere, this body should enjoy a higher degree of independence and executive authority than is possessed by the Syndicate, its nearest analogue in the existing system; but that its power of interference in the details of academic administration should be definitely limited. We propose that this body should be known as the Executive Council; but that during the period of reconstruction its functions should be exercised by a special Executive Commission, wielding greater powers than will ultimately fall to the Executive Council.

40. The primary duties of the Executive Council would be financial. It would hold, control and administer all the property of the University, and direct the form, custody and use of the common seal of the University, and for these purposes should annually appoint a Finance Committee. It would submit to the Court the reports and accounts of the University for each completed year; and, after discussion with the Committee of Reference, the estimates for the coming year. It would also have financial relations with Government, laying before Government annually a full statement of the requests put forward for the means of expansion by all colleges and institutes connected with the University,¹ with its own comments and recommendations, so as to enable Government

¹ See Chapter XXXIV and Chapter XXXV.

to form a judgment of the relative importance of various demands—demands, for example, for the development of constituent colleges of the University in Calcutta, or for grants to enable other colleges to rise to constituent rank, or for technical and professional education, or for women's education, or for the development of those mufassal colleges which showed promise of becoming potential universities. It would administer any special funds placed by Government at the disposal of the University for any of these purposes. It would therefore be, in some degree, the principal body advising Government as to the expansion and development of university education throughout Bengal, save in those cases where an independent university had already come into existence.

41. The Executive Council would thus be responsible in a very large degree for marking out the lines which the development of higher education in Bengal should follow. It would have the advice in some matters of the Academic Council, in others of the Mufassal Board, in yet others of the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, and through the Vice-Chancellor in all cases, through others of its members in each case, it would be in touch with the work of these bodies. But the business of co-ordinating all the various branches of the University's work, and of bringing them into relation with Government, with the authorities which would control the other branches of education, and with other universities, both in India and elsewhere, would mainly fall to the Executive Council. Its work, in short, would be a great work of constructive statesmanship; and this must necessitate, firstly, that its membership should be so composed as to include men capable of rising to the height of a great opportunity, and as to ensure enlightened and friendly co-operation with the other bodies concerned; and, secondly, that it should be relieved, as far as possible, from details and minutiae, so as to be able to concentrate its strength upon its main work.

42. In view of these needs, we propose that the Executive Council should be constituted as follows:—

- (a) The Vice-Chancellor and the Treasurer, *ex-officio*.
- (b) Two members appointed by the Chancellor, one of these to be a Musalman, and one a representative of experience in industry and commerce.

(c) Two members appointed by the Government of Bengal, one of these to be either the Director of Public Instruction, or, in his place, a representative of experience in secondary education.

(d) Three members appointed by the Court, one of these to be a Musalman, and none of these to be a salaried officer of the University, or of any institution connected with the University.

(e) Three University Teachers appointed by the Academic Council, one of these to be a Musalman; the term 'University Teacher' to include teachers of constituent colleges giving public instruction in the University as well as teachers wholly paid by the University.

(f) One head of a college outside Calcutta to be appointed by the Board of Mufassal Colleges.

(g) Two heads of incorporated or constituent colleges in Calcutta, one to be appointed by the Chancellor, and one by the Executive Council.¹

(h) One member to be appointed by the Board for Women's Education.

(i) One member to be appointed by the Executive Council to represent industry, commerce or agriculture.

43. This gives a body of seventeen members, which is as large a number as can efficiently deal with functions of the kind we have described. We recommend that the details of the composition of the Executive Council should be determined by Statute, so as to make an alteration more easily possible should this be found desirable in the future. In the first and critical state of reconstruction we feel that a smaller body than that proposed above would be necessary if the great changes which we contemplate were to be carried through swiftly and easily; and we therefore recommend that while a Statute appended to the Act should define the ultimate composition of the Executive Council, a clause in the Act itself should provide for the appointment of an Executive Commission of not more than seven or nine members for the period of five or seven years, the Commission to be endowed with all the powers proposed for the Executive Council, and with such other powers as may be defined.²

44. The Executive Council should, in our judgment, elect its own Chairman. It might indeed be urged, on the analogy of the practice now followed in the Syndicate, that the Vice-Chancellor should be Chairman *ex-officio*. But the Vice-Chancellor will be head of the actual working body of the University as a corporation of teachers and scholars. In that capacity he will preside over

¹ The two heads of colleges appointed under this clause should in no case both be heads of 'incorporated' colleges.

² See below, paras. 91-95.

the Academic Council, and he will have to bring before the Executive Council a great variety of business, some of which may be controversial, in which he will, in effect, act as the spokesman of the academic body. It might well be felt that his position would be both freer and stronger if, in the Executive Council, he were exempt from the obligation of maintaining that aloofness and impartiality which ought to mark a Chairman.

45. It is an essential element in the general supervisory function of the Executive Council that it should be responsible for making all the Ordinances of the University. But to require the Executive Council to consider afresh every such proposal, and to discuss and amend them in detail, would be to impose upon the Council a mass of detailed work which would distract it from its main functions. It is only in the drafting of Ordinances dealing with specially administrative problems that the Executive Council need be immediately concerned; other Ordinances, coming up in draft from the Academic Council, the Mufassal Board and other bodies, it would require to consider merely from the point of view of seeing that they were (a) in accord with Statutes, and (b) not inconsistent with the general policy of the University. We propose, therefore, that in the case of Ordinances dealing with courses of study and examinations of which drafts would be submitted by the Academic Council, the Executive Council should not have power to amend the draft, but only to adopt or reject it, or to refer it back. In the case of such Ordinances submitted by the Mufassal Board (or other Board empowered to deal with such matters), if the draft was endorsed by the Academic Council, the same principle would hold good; if there was a difference of opinion between the Academic Council and the Board, the Executive Council should have the deciding voice.

46. While the determining power in financial matters in general ought to rest with the Executive Council, we feel that there are certain financial questions in regard to which the academic body has a right to be heard. These are, especially, the fees paid by students or to examiners, the rate of remuneration of teachers, and the expenditure of available university funds, on a large scale, for one academic purpose rather than another. We therefore propose that questions of this order should not be determined by the Executive Council unless and until they have received a report

from the Academic Council, after consulting the Faculty or Faculties concerned, a reasonable period being fixed within which the report should be submitted.

47. The last, but not the least important, of the functions of the Executive Council should be that, as the controller of the purse, it should appoint, dismiss, and define the duties of all officers or servants of the University, except where some other mode of appointment, and some statutory definition of tenure, is specifically laid down, as in the case of Professors and Readers of the University. It is not necessary to repeat the description of the methods of appointment to teaching posts which we propose : they are fully set forth in Chapter XXXIV. But it may perhaps here be added that the main features of the system there defined ought, in our judgment, to be laid down in Statutes.

VII.—The Academic Council.

48. The most important of the changes which we suggest in the structure of the University is the creation of a supreme academic body, whose duty it will be to direct and review all the academic work of the University, to be responsible for the standards of attainment represented by its degrees, and to initiate proposals for academic reforms and advances. We propose to give to this body the name of the Academic Council, in order to indicate that it is, for many purposes, a parallel or co-ordinate body with the Executive Council. No such body has ever existed in any Indian university of the older type. The nearest approach to such a body is provided by the recently established Academic Councils (one in Arts and one in Science) for the conduct of the post-graduate work of Calcutta University. But these bodies were not contemplated by the Universities Act, and all their proposals have to be communicated to the Syndicate and validated by the Senate. Moreover, they deal with only one section of the work of the University ; and there are two of them even for that section. What is needed is a single supreme and representative academic body which can deal with all the academic business of the University, undergraduate and post-graduate alike.

49. Such a body must not be too large ; otherwise it will become unworkable, and its discussions will be lengthy and unpractical. The device followed in constituting the

Post-Graduate Academic Councils, that of placing upon them all university teachers concerned, would therefore be impracticable : indeed the Post-Graduate Councils themselves are already too large for the conduct of any great amount of detailed business. On the other hand, the supreme academic body cannot be small, because it must include representatives of all the chief subjects of study in the University, technical and professional as well as literary and scientific ; because it must include, further, representatives of the colleges, at any rate of those which form constituent elements in the Teaching University of Calcutta ; and finally, because it ought to include the most distinguished teachers whose services the University enjoys. Unless it includes all these elements, its judgment will not carry the weight which it ought to carry.

50. We recommend that while the character and functions of the Academic Council should be described in general terms in the Act, the more exact definition of its powers, and the enumeration of the categories of teaching experience which should be represented upon it, should be laid down in Statutes, so as to be capable of alteration if experience should show that alteration was desirable ; and that the number of members to be elected in each category should be determined by Ordinance, in order that, as the University develops and its new methods of teaching come into operation, these changes may be readily reflected in the composition of the Academic Council.

51. The elements which seem to be essential for the proper constitution of an Academic Council are, in our judgment, the following :—

- (a) The Vice-Chancellor, who should be Chairman.
- (b) The Deans of all constituted Faculties of the University.
- (c) The Librarian.
- (d) A substantial number of university teachers in the Faculties of Arts and Science (say, a minimum of thirty and a maximum of fifty) ; including both those teachers who are wholly paid by the University, and those college teachers who are appointed by the University to give instruction open to all students. These will fall, as has been already suggested, into three categories ; Professors, Readers and Lecturers. All three should be represented, the greater representation being given to the most distinguished category, that of Professors. We suggest that the number of members in each category should be defined by Ordinance, and that the appointments should be made, one-half by the Faculty concerned, and the other half by the Chancellor after report from the Executive Council.

(e) There might also be a small number (say five) of representatives of Recognised Teachers whose work is limited to the students of their own colleges, these being constituent colleges.

(f) Each of the professional Faculties of Law, Medicine and Engineering should be represented by (say) five members, and any other professional or technical Faculties, which might be constituted later, by a smaller number. A majority of these representatives should be teachers in the Faculty; a minority (the number in each case to be fixed by Ordinance) should consist of persons of professional experience. In each category, one half might be appointed by the Faculty concerned, the other half appointed by the Chancellor after report from the Executive Council.

(g) Every college or institute directly controlled by the University, and every college recognised as fulfilling the conditions laid down for constituent colleges, should be represented by its Principal.

(h) Two representatives of the Mufassal Board, of whom one should be elected by the Board, and the other appointed by the Chancellor after report from the Executive Council.

(i) Three representatives of Secondary and Intermediate Education, of whom two should be appointed by the Government of Bengal, and one by the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education.

(j) Two representatives of Women's Education, appointed by the Chancellor after report from the Board of Women's Education.

(k) Pending the creation of a Faculty of Education, there should be at least two representatives of the Science and Art of Education and of the professional training of teachers, appointed by the Chancellor after report from the Executive Council.

(l) Other important subjects related to university studies, but not yet represented by distinct Faculties, such as Agriculture, might have representatives appointed by the Chancellor after report from the Executive Council.

(m) Four representatives with educational experience, two at least of whom should be teachers, to be appointed by the Chancellor after report from the Muslim Advisory Board, submitted through the Vice-Chancellor.

We recommend that the quorum of the Academic Council should be at least thirty.

52. Certain features of the Academic Council as above defined require further explanation. In the first place we contemplate that the number of members of the Academic Council under this scheme might amount to between 80 and about 100,¹ a number rather large for detailed discussion, but not, we think, unduly large, in view of the importance of the interests committed to it, and the fact that all the members would be men with direct educational experience. In the second place the method of filling a large proportion of the places on the Council by appointment by the

¹ Dr. Zia-ud-Din Ahmad thinks it would be practicable to constitute the Academic Council in such a way as to restrict its members to 50 or 60.

Chancellor after report from the Executive Council is suggested because there is felt to be some danger that particular groups among the teachers, and others, such as the Musalmans, might fail to obtain representation if the method of election were adopted throughout; while, since the very large and, at present, much divided teaching body of the University and the colleges in Calcutta has no very ready means of mutual acquaintance, some men who might be among the most valuable members of such a body might be overlooked. Again, professional and communal interests, such as are represented in groups (f), (i), (k), (l) and (m) ought to be represented, might otherwise be overlooked, and in some cases could not well be provided for in any other way. We regard it as the duty of the Executive Council in pursuance of its function of having regard to all the interests of higher education, to take steps to ensure that every important interest is represented; we regard it as the duty of the Chancellor to see that fair opportunities are given to all communities and to all well conducted institutions; and it is for these reasons that we recommend a sort of joint action of the Chancellor and the Executive Council, as a supplement to election, for ensuring that the Academic Council is so constituted as to be able to deal with the vitally important functions committed to it. But when the new system of organisation and teaching which we recommend has taken firm root, and when the teaching body of the Calcutta University and its constituent colleges has become a real corporation, which it is not yet, we contemplate that these methods of appointment might be materially modified; and it is for this reason that we recommend that while Statutes should fix the categories to be included in the Academic Council, the details and methods of appointment should be fixed by Ordinances, which can be more easily altered.

53. It is obvious that a body representative of so many distinct interests, and elected, in part, by so many various bodies, could not be regularly constituted in the form which we have described until (a) the classification of colleges had been defined, and the various colleges had been allotted to their respective classes; and until (b) the various Faculties and Boards had also been formally constituted. These must be among the first duties of the Executive Commission whose appointment in the Act we have recommended. But the process will take some time; and while it is going forward, the

Executive Commission ought to have the advice of an Academic Body whose judgment would carry weight. We therefore recommend that it should be laid down in the Act, or in a special Statute appended to the Act, as one of the first duties of the Chancellor, after report from the Executive Commission, to constitute a Provisional Academic Council corresponding as nearly as possible to the Academic Council defined above; and that this Provisional Academic Council should, while it continues to exist, exercise the powers of the Academic Council and give advice on academic matters to the Executive Commission; but that it should cease to exist, and should be replaced by an Academic Council of the kind defined above, as soon as the other bodies necessary to take part in its creation have been duly constituted.

54. The powers of the Academic Council would fall into two categories (a) powers of direct control over the work of the Teaching University in Calcutta and of its constituent colleges and incorporated institutes; (b) powers of supervision and review over the other aspects of university work.

55. In regard to the work of the Teaching University, the approval of the Academic Council should be required for all Ordinances affecting courses of study and examinations for degrees and diplomas; it should have power to make Regulations giving effect in detail to these Ordinances; and all awards and lists of successful candidates should be issued in its name. It should appoint committees of selection for the appointment or recognition of lecturers, and, in forwarding the reports of these committees for final decision to the Executive Council, should add its own comments. The Vice-Chancellor, who is responsible for discipline, should have its help in this matter, through a Standing Committee of Discipline, which should include some heads of colleges.¹ It should be generally responsible for all teaching given in the name of the University which is not limited to the members of a single college, and should have power to appoint special committees for any such purpose. Acting through a Library Committee, elected from among its own members, but including also representatives of the Imperial Library and others, it should be responsible for the conduct of the University Library, and for the Regulations regarding its use. It should regularly receive reports of the proceedings of all

¹ The question of discipline is fully dealt with in Chapter XXXIV.

Faculties and Boards dealing with academic questions, and should have the power to approve, amend, or refer back any recommendations contained therein. It should advise the Executive Council in regard to the following matters :—

(a) The admission or creation of institutes or colleges as incorporated parts of the University under its direct control, the management and government of such institutes or colleges, the appointment of representatives upon their managing committees, and the inspection, supervision and control of them.

(b) The conditions to be imposed upon colleges seeking admission to the rank of constituent colleges, and the supervision and inspection of such colleges.

(c) The appointment of university representatives on the Governing Bodies of constituent, mufassal and temporarily affiliated colleges, and also on the Governing Bodies of intermediate colleges or high English schools where such representatives are invited.

(d) The creation of teaching posts wholly paid by the University and the regulations affecting such posts and the duties of their occupants.

(e) The appointment of Committees of Selection for University professorships, readerships and lectureships, in so far as such appointments are not determined by Statute or Ordinance.

(f) The appointment of internal and external examiners.

(g) The fees to be paid by students for instruction, examination or admission to degrees.

(h) And in general all subjects relating to the teaching, examination and discipline of the University and of its constituent colleges, or to the rights and duties of teachers.

56. In regard to other aspects of the University's work, i.e., the work of temporarily affiliated colleges in Calcutta, of the colleges represented upon the Mufassal Board, and of the colleges and other institutions represented upon the Board of Women's Education, the Academic Council should have the right to be consulted upon all proposed Ordinances affecting courses of study and examinations for degrees, and to refer back on one occasion, but not to amend, such Ordinances. In the event of a final difference of opinion between the Academic Council and any such Board, the final decision would rest with the Executive Council, but the Academic Council should be entitled to present a full report to the Executive Council explaining the reasons for its objection to the course proposed. The Academic Council should also report to the Executive Council as to :—

(a) The conditions of affiliation to be imposed on temporarily affiliated colleges in Calcutta, and, in particular, as to the courses in which such colleges should be empowered to prepare students, and the conditions upon which

the students of such colleges should be admitted to any courses of study provided for students of the constituent colleges of the University.

(b) The conditions upon which colleges in the Mufassal should be admitted to affiliation, and the subjects in which they should be recognised.

(c) The recognition of teachers in those mufassal colleges which may be admitted to membership of the special panel of University Colleges described below and the privileges which such colleges should be entitled to enjoy.

57. The Academic Council would thus perform functions of the highest importance and responsibility. It would be the real guiding force of the Teaching University in Calcutta in its actual work of training students and conducting research; and it would at the same time be largely responsible for ensuring that the work of those sections of the University which were not included in the central teaching organisation in Calcutta was carried on in a manner, and at a standard, worthy of the University. We regard the Academic Council, in short, as the main pivot of the new system of teaching which we advocate.

VIII.—Faculties, Committees of Courses and Boards of Studies.

58. Since the Academic Council must be a body covering a very wide range of studies, and representing many distinct interests and institutions, it can only exercise a general supervisory and co-ordinating power over the work of teaching. The actual detail of this work, so far as concerns the Teaching University and its constituent colleges, must be in the hands of more specialised bodies. This need will be met by Faculties, and (under the Faculties) by Boards of Studies and other bodies, dealing with special subjects or groups of subjects in which this further devolution is necessary. Unlike the Academic Council, the Faculties and Boards of Studies will be concerned almost exclusively with the work of the Teaching University; with the other aspects of the University's work they will only have to deal if a special point is referred to them for advice.

59. Faculties and Boards of Studies are the only elements in the new system which would survive, in name, from the old system. But we propose that the Faculties and Boards under the new system should be very different, both in composition and in functions, from those of the old system. The Faculties and Boards of to-day are in effect standing committees of the Senate, and commonly do not include many of the best teachers of the subjects

with which they deal ; moreover they are primarily concerned not with teaching but with the regulations for examination. The Faculties and Boards which we propose will consist primarily and almost exclusively (except in professional Faculties) of university and college teachers ; and their main business will be the organisation of university and college teaching. With examinations they will deal only as subordinate to teaching.

60. A Faculty ought to be an assembly of the leading teachers of a closely linked group of subjects, represented by a specific degree or series of degrees. In strict theory there ought to be a distinct Faculty corresponding to each series of degrees (such as B.A., M.A., D.Litt., or M.B., M.D., or B.L., M.L.) ; and if the group of studies represented by a particular series of degrees is for a time included in a Faculty which is primarily concerned with another series of degrees (as, for example, teaching subjects with the Faculty of Arts, or Agriculture with the Faculty of Science) it will usually be, because this group of studies is as yet too undeveloped to be organised as a distinct Faculty, or because it overlaps very widely the subjects of the Faculty in which it is included.

61. We conceive, then, of a Faculty as a group of responsible teachers concerned with the management of the studies leading to a particular degree or series of degrees. Its first business is to see that these studies are duly correlated, that the course of study followed by the undergraduate is homogeneous, and that its parts are not treated as if they were in watertight compartments, but are made mutually illuminative. Its second business is to organise the teaching so that all the available resources shall be utilisable by the students ; to arrange lecture-lists and so forth. Its third business is to see that the students are tested in such a way as to justify the University in declaring that they have been properly taught and have acquired the positive attainments prescribed.

62. We recommend that the Act should in general terms determine that the teaching work of the University should be conducted under the management of Faculties ; but that the number of such Faculties and the general features of their composition and powers should be determined by Statute, which should lay down the subjects to be included within the scope of each Faculty, the types and categories of experience to be represented in each Faculty,

and the modes in which these representatives should be chosen, leaving to Ordinances to determine from time to time the number of members in each category. We suggest further that power should be given by Statute to two or more Faculties, for the organisation of studies preparatory to the teaching profession, or for other similar purposes, to constitute, subject to the approval of the Academic Council, a joint committee or joint committees, which should be entitled to report direct to the Academic Council.

63. In regard to the composition of a Faculty, we recommend that it should consist of the following categories :—

(a) The University Professors and Readers in the subjects of the Faculty, including college teachers upon whom these titles are conferred.

(b) A number of University Lecturers, the number and the mode of appointment to be determined by Ordinance.

(c) A number of recognised teachers in constituent colleges not appointed as University Lecturers.

(d) Professors or other teachers of subjects not scheduled as subjects of the Faculty, but having an important bearing upon these subjects; the subjects in which such teachers are to be appointed, and their numbers, to be determined by Ordinance; the appointment to be made by the Academic Council.

(e) A limited number of experts (if any) not engaged in university teaching, the number to be determined in each case by Ordinance, but not, as a rule, to exceed one-fourth of the total membership of the Faculty,¹ and the appointments to be made by the Executive Council.

64. The powers to be exercised by the Faculty should be defined by Statute, as follows :—

(a) to organise the teaching and research work of the University in the subjects of the Faculty ;

(b) to regulate, subject to the control of the Academic Council, the conditions for the award of degrees, diplomas and other distinctions within the purview of the Faculty ;

(c) to recommend to the Academic Council, after report from the relevant Board or Boards of Studies, the names of examiners, internal and external ; and

(d) to deal with any matter referred or delegated to it by the Academic Council.

65. The executive officer of a Faculty is the Dean. It is open to doubt whether it is best that the Dean should be, at any rate *ex-officio*, Chairman of the Faculty, or whether he would exercise a greater freedom in the performance of his duties if the Faculty were to elect its own chairman annually, leaving to the Dean the

¹ In the case of Faculties dealing with technical subjects, it might be necessary, especially at first, to depart from this general rule.

responsibility of introducing and conducting the business. On the whole we are inclined to think that, just as it may often be inadvisable that the Vice-Chancellor should be Chairman of the Executive Council, so it may be inadvisable that the Dean should be Chairman of the Faculty, at any rate *ex-officio*. But if the Dean is Chairman, the Faculty should also elect a Secretary. The functions of the Dean are of the highest importance. He should issue and sign the lecture-list of the University in the subjects of his Faculty, and be primarily responsible for the arrangement of time-tables, and for reporting to the Faculty on the way in which the work is carried on. He should give advice to students. He should have the right to be present at any meeting of any Board of Studies under the Faculty, and should convene, and conduct the business of, all committees of the Faculty. He should be responsible for the agenda of Faculty meetings, for the record of their proceedings, and for laying before the Academic Council such parts of the proceedings of the Faculty as may need its confirmation. In the conduct of such business he should receive clerical assistance from the university office, under the direction of the Registrar. It is obvious that among the qualifications of a good Dean business capacity should count for as much as academic distinction.

66. In view of the importance of the Dean's office, we recommend that he should be appointed for three years, that he should receive an honorarium, and that while he should be nominated by the Faculty, the nomination should require confirmation by the Academic Council.

67. Even the Faculty is too large, and covers too wide a range, to be able to deal with all the details of the studies of a university so big and so complex as that of Calcutta will inevitably be. It is therefore necessary that there should be minor bodies under the Faculty to deal with the detailed work in particular subjects and in groups of subjects. Under the present system the first of these functions—that of dealing with individual subjects—is performed by Boards of Studies, one for each recognised subject which can be presented for a degree; and the chief work of these bodies is to define the content of each subject at each stage, and to prescribe books and periods when such prescription is necessary. The second function—that of dealing with special groups of subjects—is under the present system disregarded. The result is

that each subject is treated as a watertight compartment, and that the need of correlating the various elements in a student's course and of planning his course as a whole is unduly neglected. The disparate and disconnected character of the various parts of the student's work is one of the most marked defects in the present system; and if this defect is to be amended, some change must be made in the administrative machinery whereby the courses are regulated.

68. We have elsewhere¹ recommended that the courses of study should in future be defined in distinct honours schools and pass groups, the various elements in which should be clearly thought out in relation to one another. It would seem obvious that there ought to be a distinct body to deal with each defined honours school and the main pass groups. We suggest that these bodies should be known as Committees on Courses. Even the most highly specialised honours schools will never be rigidly limited in their range to a single subject: an honours school of physics would clearly also include mathematics and chemistry; an honours school of history some elements of economics, political science and geography; an honours school of English some history and some philosophy. And not only ought the various elements in these schemes of study to be planned in relation to one another, but in the actual conduct of teaching work there should be the closest practicable co-ordination. This can best be secured if the working of each distinctive group of studies is under the care of a group of teachers representing every part of it, and themselves engaged in the work.

69. But it is also obvious that there should be in every subject some organisation for taking into review all the various demands upon the subject, and for considering how they can best be met. Many subjects will find a place in a number of different honours schools and the main pass groups. It may be necessary that a subject should be differently treated for different purposes; that, for example, the books to be read in English literature should be different for students whose main work is in philosophy and for students whose main work is in history. But it will obviously be necessary, while allowing as much elasticity as possible in these matters, to keep variation within reasonable limits, with a view

¹ Chapter XXXIV, paras. 35-39.

to economising teaching. We suggest therefore that a widely representative body of the principal university and college teachers in each subject should be constituted by the Faculty for this purpose, and especially to secure that the total teaching strength of the University and its colleges in the subject is so distributed as to meet in the best possible way, and with the least possible waste, the various needs of the various courses. Following the existing practice, these bodies should be known as Boards of Studies; and it should be secured that each Board of Studies should include a member of the Committee on Courses of every honours school and pass group in which the subject was included.

70. We do not think that it is possible to determine beforehand precisely what Committees on Courses, or even what Boards of Studies, would be needed; and, for this reason, we recommend that each Faculty should be empowered to create such Boards and Committees as it may find necessary, subject to the approval of the Academic Council.

71. It is important that the Boards of Studies and Committees on Courses should include representative teachers of all grades concerned in the actual work of teaching, whether as appointed university lecturers or as college lecturers or tutors. The Boards and Committees ought, therefore, frequently to include teachers who are not members of the Faculty. We recommend that each Board of Studies should normally include (a) Professors and Readers of the University assigned to the Board by the Faculty; (b) other university lecturers or college teachers, whether members of the Faculty or not, appointed by the Faculty with the approval of the Academic Council; (c) not more than three outside experts in the subjects concerned, appointed by the Faculty with the approval of the Academic Council; (d) additional members, being teachers in the University or in one of its constituent colleges, added by the Vice-Chancellor, after taking such advice as he may think necessary to represent parts of the subject otherwise not adequately dealt with. The Committees on Courses might be smaller bodies constituted in a less formal way. The external examiners of the subjects concerned should be entitled to be notified of meetings of Boards of Studies and Committees on Courses in which they are concerned, and to be present at such meetings if they desire to do so.

IX.—*Classification of colleges.*

72. The relations which, in our judgment, ought to be established between the University and its colleges in a teaching university, such as we have outlined, have already been described with some fulness in Chapter XXXIV. But it is desirable that the essential features of the system should be defined in a more formal way. We therefore recommend that Statutes should define the classes or categories of colleges or institutions which should be associated with the University (A) as members of the Teaching University, (B) as temporarily affiliated colleges, and (C) as mufassai colleges.

73. (A) In association with the Teaching University within the city of Calcutta or in its near neighbourhood three distinct types of colleges or institutes should be recognised :—

- (i) *Incorporated* colleges or institutes, wholly financed by the University, and managed by a managing committee appointed by it. These should be primarily institutions for the study of a special group of subjects not ordinarily provided for in an adequate way by other colleges. Such are, to-day for example, the Law College and the College of Science; such might be the Sanskrit College if it were handed over by Government to the University to be developed into a centre of oriental learning.
- (ii) *Constituent* colleges,¹ which must fulfil the conditions laid down by the University regarding—
 - (a) the separate treatment of intermediate students,
 - (b) the number of degree students whom they admit,
 - (c) the number, pay and tenure of their teachers,
 - (d) the submission of their teachers, on their appointment, for individual recognition,
 - (e) the residence of their students,
 - (f) participation in the co-operative teaching work of the University.

The teachers of such colleges should be eligible for membership of all the academic governing bodies of the University, under the conditions already laid down;

¹ Chapter XXXIV, paras. 121-140.

their students should be permitted to attend university lectures for which they were qualified, without payment of special fees.

Statutes should define the conditions required for the admission of a college to constituent rank, and the privileges to be attached to this rank. And as these privileges should not, in any individual case, be lightly given or lightly withdrawn, it seems to us essential that a Statute should be required either for the admission or the exclusion of a college from this category.

- (iii) *Women's colleges* which fulfil the conditions laid down by the University, but which should be differentiated from the rest by the fact that their courses of study and examinations would be immediately controlled by a special body (see below, paragraphs 82—84).

74. (B) A special category would, for a time, be composed of the *temporarily affiliated colleges* in the city of Calcutta which, while unable at first to fulfil the conditions laid down for constituent colleges, are permitted for a brief period to remain in association with the University on terms to be defined by the Executive Commission in accordance with the principles laid down in Chapter XXXIV. The privileges given to these colleges, the names of the colleges admitted to these privileges, and the period for which they are admitted, should be defined by Ordinance. But, as we have elsewhere pointed out, the creation or recognition of new colleges of this type would be inconsistent with the general tenor of our proposals.

75. (C) We shall propose, in the next section, a special system of organisation for the management of mufassal colleges. But we recommend that these Statutes should draw a distinction between two classes of these colleges :—

- (i) Colleges which are admitted only to the ordinary privileges of affiliation, and which are placed, in regard to their courses of study and examinations, under the control of the Mufassal Board. The names of the colleges admitted to these privileges should be defined by Ordinance.

- (ii) Colleges which, by fulfilling the conditions as to staff, equipment, etc., laid down by Statute, are recognised as likely in time to develop into universities, and are therefore enabled, through representation upon a special panel of the Mufassal Board, to claim a growing degree of autonomy under the tutelage of the University in the definition of their courses and the conduct of their examinations. Colleges admitted to these privileges should be designated University Colleges, the title being reserved to their use. As the conferment of these privileges would imply the commitment of the University and of Government to the gradual development of these colleges until they were worthy of independence, the names of the colleges thus privileged should be defined by Statute.

X.—The Board of Mufassal Colleges.

76. Of the bodies which have been described in the foregoing sections, the Academic Council would be concerned primarily, the Faculties and Boards and Departments of Studies exclusively, with the work of the Teaching University in Calcutta. Those Calcutta colleges for men which did not immediately succeed in attaining the rank of constituent colleges in the Teaching University, but were assigned the position of temporarily affiliated colleges, would be, in academic matters, subject to the control of the Academic Council, Faculties and Boards of Studies; while in regard to the conditions of affiliation and the appointment or recognition of teachers, they would be subject to the special standing committee of the Executive Commission or Council which has been recommended in Chapter XXXIV.¹ But we have still to deal with the regulation of the colleges in the mufassal.

77. We have already, in Chapter XXXV, recommended the establishment of a Board of Mufassal Colleges, and defined in general terms its functions and powers. But these functions and powers, and the constitution of the Board, as well as its special panel for more advanced colleges, require more exact definition.

78. There is, however, a preliminary question on which something ought to be said. What are to be the geographical limits

¹ Para. 179.

of the sphere within which the Teaching University of Calcutta operates, and within which the University can admit colleges either as 'constituent' or as 'temporarily affiliated' colleges? To this question, in our judgment, no exact answer can be given. Generally speaking it may be said that no college can fully play the part of a constituent college, as it has been defined in Chapter XXXIV, unless it is within such a distance of the centre of university life that participation in intercollegiate courses can be arranged; otherwise its students cannot make use of the combined teaching facilities which it is the primary business of the Teaching University to offer. On the other hand, purely professional colleges or institutes, such as the Engineering College at Sibpur, or such as an experimental and demonstration farm attached to a department of agriculture, might necessarily be placed at a considerable distance from the university centre, and yet be able to play its part quite effectively in the Teaching University. It is impossible, therefore, to draw a line on the map, and to say "up to this line the sphere of the Teaching University extends, beyond it the sphere of the Mufassal Board begins." For this reason we do not recommend the definition of any exact geographical limits. In practice there will be no difficulty, provided that the essential requirements of a teaching university are kept in mind; and in any case of difficulty the decision should be left to negotiation between the Executive Council and the college concerned, with a final appeal to the Chancellor.

79. The Mufassal Board is proposed in order that it may deal with the educational requirements of those colleges which, being beyond the limits of the city of Calcutta, are unable to play the part of constituent colleges in a co-operative teaching university. But, in order to avoid confusion, we definitely recommend that it should be provided by Statute that no college within the limits of the city of Calcutta or its suburbs shall be admitted to membership of the Mufassal Board.¹

80. We recommend that the constitution and powers of the Mufassal Board should be defined by Statute, and that its members should be as follows:—

(a) The Vice-Chancellor of the University of Calcutta, who should be *ex-officio* Chairman of the Board.

¹ The undesirability of including Calcutta colleges with the mufassal colleges under the jurisdiction of the Mufassal Board is discussed in Chapter XXXV, para. 24.

(b) The Chairman of the Examinations Board of the University of Calcutta.¹

(c) The Principal of every college in the Bengal mufassal or in Assam or Burma which is empowered to present candidates for degrees of the University of Calcutta.

(d) A number of representatives of the teachers' councils of such mufassal colleges as may have been admitted by statute to the special panel for University Colleges defined below: these representatives to be chosen, in such numbers in each case as Ordinance may determine from time to time, by the teachers of the several colleges concerned.

(e) A number of university and recognised college teachers in Calcutta, to be appointed by the Academic Council; such number to be not less than one-third nor more than one-half of the whole Board.

(f) A limited number of additional members, of whom at least four shall be Musalmans, to be appointed by the Chancellor; the number to be fixed by Ordinance.

(g) Three members appointed by the Government of Bengal, of whom it is suggested that one might be the Director of Public Instruction, and another might, if thought desirable, be representative of the University of Dacca.

81. We recommend that the powers of the Board should be defined as follows:—

(i) The Mufassal Board should prescribe the courses of study and the examination requirements to be exacted from students in all mufassal colleges which should be the same for all colleges, except where, in accordance with the Ordinances, special privileges are allowed; and should draft the necessary Ordinances and Regulations on such subjects, subject to the approval of the Executive Council in the case of all Ordinances or Regulations affecting fees, and subject to review by the Academic Council in the case of all Ordinances and Regulations affecting courses of study and examinations: the Academic Council should have the power (a) to reject any such Ordinance or Regulation by a majority of not less than two-thirds of those present at the meeting at which it is considered, or (b) to refer back any Ordinance, Regulation or other recommendation of the Board on one occasion only, provided that the Academic Council should not have power to postpone its decision upon any such recommendation beyond a reasonable period, to be defined by Ordinance; and provided that, in case of a deadlock, the decision should rest with the Executive Council.

The object of these provisions is to ensure that on the one hand the Mufassal Board shall have a real independence and responsibility in shaping the courses of study normally pursued by the mufassal colleges, and that on the other hand the Academic Council shall have a real

¹ See para. 88 (ii) below.

power of ensuring that the standards of work in the mufassal college are such as to deserve degrees of Calcutta, without being able to impose vexatious demands suggested by what is done in Calcutta, but incapable of being adequately done in the mufassal. We anticipate that the courses of study pursued in the mufassal colleges—both the pass groups, and, where these were taken, the honours schools—would be made to correspond as nearly as possible with the parallel courses in the Teaching University; but in some cases divergence would be found desirable.

(ii) The Board should elect an Executive Committee, consisting of the Vice-Chancellor, who should be Chairman, together with twelve ordinary members, of whom two at least should be Musalmans, and a majority should be representative of the mufassal colleges.

(iii) The Board should have its own salaried Secretary, to be appointed by the Executive Council after report from the Board; and it should elect its own Vice-Chairman.

(iv) The Mufassal Board should have power to constitute Committees of Studies as may be defined by Ordinance, in the various subjects or groups of subjects of the curriculum. To every such committee the Academic Council should be entitled to appoint not more than two members, who should normally also be members of the corresponding Board of Studies in the Teaching University; the Committees of Studies might also include persons, not being teachers, nominated by the Mufassal Board and approved by the Academic Council on the ground of their expert knowledge of the subject or subjects concerned; but such persons should not constitute more than one-fourth of any such Committee; and the majority should consist of members of the Mufassal Board itself, or of other teachers in the mufassal colleges. The Board should also be empowered to appoint such special or standing committees as it may find desirable.

(v) The Mufassal Board should have power to conduct all examinations in mufassal colleges, and for this purpose to recommend examiners for appointment by the Executive Council, subject to the approval of the Academic Council. In every subject at every examination there should be at least one external examiner not engaged in teaching in a mufassal college; but internal examiners might also be appointed, subject to the approval in each case of the Academic Council. The work of printing and distributing the question papers and, generally, the routine conduct of the examination, should be under the control of the Superintendent of Examinations. It should be open to the Mufassal Board to propose arrangements, when desirable (a) for the use of the same papers used in the corresponding examinations of the Teaching University, under such conditions as the Academic Council may prescribe, or (b) for the appointment of the same examiners to act during the same session in the examination both of mufassal students and of students of the Teaching University even in cases where different papers are set.

(vi) There should be a Special Panel of the Mufassal Board, consisting of (a) the Vice-Chancellor, who should be Chairman *ex-officio*; (b) representatives (the number to be determined by Ordinance) of those colleges upon which the rank and status of University Colleges had been conferred by Statute; and (c) such number of representatives of the teachers in the University and constituent colleges in Calcutta (not being a majority of the whole panel) as Ordinance may define. The panel should meet separately for most of its business, and might appoint its own executive committee; but its members should continue to serve as members of the Board. It should appoint its own Vice-Chairman. The panel should be empowered to discuss, and to forward, for the approval of the Academic Council, proposals for the establishment of special courses or parts of courses for any of the colleges represented on the panel, and also proposals for special examinations in any of these colleges, in which the teachers should participate along with external examiners. Proposals of this order should be reported to the Mufassal Board as a whole, and should be forwarded by them, with such comments as they may think fit to add, to the Academic Council, whose decision on any such proposals should be final.

The object of these provisions is, as has been already explained in Chapter XXXV, to enable the stronger mufassal colleges, which show promise of developing into potential universities, and which are adequately staffed and equipped, to enjoy a higher degree of autonomy in the planning of their courses and the conduct of their examinations than they now enjoy, or than it would be possible to allow to the majority of mufassal colleges in their existing condition. At the same time the proposals are intended to secure that this autonomy shall not be used in such a way as to degrade the standards of attainments represented by Calcutta degrees.

(vii) The funds of the Mufassal Board, including the receipts from examination fees and any grant which may be made for this purpose by Government, should be kept separately from the other funds of the University; and any surplus in the Mufassal Board account should not be merged in the balances of the University, but should be expended in the interests of the mufassal colleges under the direction of the Executive Council. It should be the duty of the Mufassal Board to submit each year to the Executive Council for their approval estimates of its receipts and expenditure.

(viii) With a view to its having a co-ordinated statement of the financial needs of mufassal colleges, Government may find it desirable to require that any application made to Government for financial aid by, or on behalf of any non-Government mufassal college should be made through the channel of the Mufassal Board, which should be required to transmit the application (with such comments as it may think necessary) to the Executive Council, which should forward it to Government (adding its own comments to those of

the Board) in conjunction with any further applications [for] financial aid put forward either by the University itself or by the Calcutta colleges. Proposals for additional expenditure on Government colleges in the mufassal should, as far as possible, be dealt with in the same manner. Any grant which may be made to the University out of public funds for the benefit of higher education in the mufassal should be expended by the Executive Council (or Commission) after a report received from the Mufassal Board.

(ix) The conditions of affiliation to be imposed on mufassal colleges, other than those upon which the rank and status of University Colleges is conferred by Statute, the renewal or continuance of their affiliation or recognition, and the inspection of all mufassal colleges, should be determined—
(a) during the period of reconstruction, by the Executive Commission subject to the confirmation of the local Government concerned; (ii) subsequently, by the Executive Council, subject to the confirmation of the local Government concerned. It should be within the power of the Executive Council (or Commission) to consult the Mufassal Board, or not, on all such questions; but in every case expert advice should be taken, and a report should be invited from the Academic Council. It is necessary that the University should exercise effective control over the qualifications, the conditions of employment of the staff, and the accommodation and equipment of all mufassal colleges. This control should be exercised by the Executive Council, which should, in all cases not affecting the affiliation or status of an individual college, ask for a report from the Mufassal Board.

82. Since an indefinite increase of weak centres of university training above the intermediate stage is highly undesirable, because such an increase would render difficult the development of potential universities and be prejudicial to the educational interests of Bengal, we recommend that, when any proposal for the establishment of a new first-grade college is put forward, the desirability of such proposal, the location of the proposed college, and the conditions to be required of it, should be determined, after consultation of the Mufassal Board, by the Executive Commission or Council, subject to the confirmation of the local Government concerned.

XI.—The Board of Women's Education.

83. It has been shown, in an earlier chapter,¹ that in the existing state of women's education in Bengal special encouragement and a special organisation are necessary for this branch of higher education. And this for three main reasons. In the first place, the development of higher education for women is as yet so backward that it would be premature and impracticable com-

¹ Chapter XXXVI.

pletely to separate the intermediate from the degree work, as we have proposed in the case of men. It is necessary that the women's colleges should continue to undertake intermediate work, because the number of students is insufficient to make separate treatment desirable or economically practicable; and in view of this necessity, it is desirable that the higher education of women should be placed under the direction of a special authority which will be able to deal both with the supreme authorities of the University and with the proposed Secondary and Intermediate Board. In the second place, the social conditions of India require that the higher education of women should to a large extent be carried on separately from that of men. We hold that all university lectures and classes should be open to duly qualified women equally with men. But we recognise that for a long time to come such facilities will only be utilised on a small scale; and we therefore think it desirable that there should be a special administrative organ to deal with women's education. Finally, it is widely felt that there are some subjects of study which might properly be included in courses for women, though they would be unsuitable for men; and that, for this reason, some body should be established which would be able to design and conduct such courses under the supervision and control of the University.

84. For these reasons we propose that there should be instituted a Board of Women's Education, which would stand in much the same relation to the governing bodies of the University as the Board of mufassal colleges. We recommend that the Board should be established by Statute, and that it should include representatives of the following categories of experience as set out below:—

- (a) The Vice-Chancellor, who should be Chairman *ex-officio*.
- (b) The Principals of those women's colleges in Calcutta which shall have complied with the requirements laid down by the University in regard to staffing, accommodation and equipment.
- (c) Women Professors and Readers of the University (if any).
- (d) A number (to be fixed by Ordinance) of recognised university lecturers engaged in teaching in women's colleges in Calcutta: to be appointed by the Academic Council.
- (e) Representatives of such Associations engaged in the promotion of women's education as may be defined by Statute: the number of representatives in each case to be defined by Ordinance, and the representatives to be nominated by the several Associations and appointed by the Executive Council.

(f) A number (to be fixed by Ordinance) of representatives of the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education or, pending its creation, of the temporary Committee of the University which will deal with the recognition and examination of schools and intermediate colleges.

(g) Three representatives of the Government of Bengal, of whom it is suggested that at least one should be an Inspectress of Schools.

(h) Four representatives of the Academic Council, of whom one shall be a member of the Faculty of Medicine.

(i) Two representatives of the Executive Council.

(j) Three Muslim representatives to be nominated by the Muslim Advisory Board and appointed by the Chancellor.

(k) Not more than three women interested in women's education, appointed by the Chancellor.

(l) Not more than four members (men or women) to be co-opted by the Board subject to ratification by the Executive Council.

85. The powers of the Board of Women's Education in regard to the drafting of Ordinances and Regulations affecting degree courses for women, in regard to the appointment of Committees of Studies and the conduct of examinations, in regard to the conditions of affiliation or recognition of women's colleges, and in regard to the forwarding of applications for further grants for such colleges, should in general correspond to the powers already defined for the Mufassal Board. But in view of the special needs of women's education, we think that the Board should further be empowered—

(a) to report to the Academic Council or the Executive Council or both on any matter affecting the higher education of women ;

(b) to advise the Executive Council regarding the expenditure of funds provided by Government or otherwise for the furtherance of women's higher education ;

(c) to constitute a special panel of women only, including women who are not members of the Board, to give advice on aspects of the education of women on which it is desirable that *purdah* women should be consulted.

(d) to organise a co-operative lecture system, so far as such may be practicable, among the women's colleges ; and to provide, if thought desirable, extra-mural courses of instruction for women.

XII.—Other Boards and Standing Committees.

86. *Muslim Advisory Board.*—In view of the fact that the Muslim community has been relatively backward in taking advantage of the opportunities of university education, and that the members of this community fear that their special needs might sometimes be overlooked by the authorities of the University, we believe that it is of great importance that a special Board should be established to advise the University on matters affecting the

interests and convictions of Muslim students. Such a Board would be of material assistance to the University authorities, and could do much to confirm the attachment of the Muslim community to the University, especially if its membership was influential and sufficiently limited in number to make it possible that meetings should be held as often as its business might necessitate.

87. We recommend, therefore, that a Muslim Advisory Board should be established by Statute, and that it should consist of from twelve to fourteen members, to be appointed as follows:—

- (a) Eight members (of whom not less than four should be teachers in the University) to be elected by the members of the Court who register themselves as Muslim members.
- (b) Four Musalmans appointed by the Chancellor.
- (c) Not more than two persons, not necessarily Musalmans, to be co-opted by the other members of the Board.

The Board should elect its own Chairman, and it should be empowered to address any of the University bodies on any matter affecting Muslim interests and to discharge such other functions as might be assigned to it by Statute or Ordinance.

88. Among the Boards and Standing Committees which ought, in our judgment, to be established in the University, there are some which seem to us so important that they should be prescribed by Statute. Among these may be named the following:—

- (i) *A Board of Students' Welfare.*—The need for such an organisation, the way in which it should work, and the manner in which it should be constituted, will be discussed elsewhere.¹ But we think that such a Board should be appointed by, and report regularly to, the Academic Council, and should be empowered to draft regulations, subject to the approval of the Academic Council, bearing upon its sphere of work. The powers of the Board should include certain functions in regard to students' residence.
- (ii) *A Board of Examinations.*—The reasons for setting up such a body and the nature of the work which it would do will be set forth in Chapter XL. The

¹ Chapter XXXIX, paras. 36-44.

duty of the Board should be to review the working of the examination system in all aspects of the University's work, and to report periodically to the Academic and Executive Councils. It would have no responsibility for the actual conduct of the examinations, but would be exclusively critical and advisory in its function. It should be a small and compact body, and should include a skilled statistician.

- (iii) *A Library Committee.*—The Library Committee should be appointed, and report to, the Academic Council. Its duties should not be limited to the administration of the University Library. It should also aim at securing organised co-operation with the Imperial Library and other public libraries in Calcutta; it should supply advice and guidance to college libraries, both in Calcutta and in the mufassal, and endeavour to prevent needless duplication or overlapping. In order that it may be able to secure these ends, it should if possible include the Librarian of the Imperial Library, and perhaps other Calcutta librarians; and it should further include college teachers specially interested in library work.
- (iv) *An Appointments Bureau.*—In view of the desirability of extending the range of callings entered by university graduates of strengthening the connexion between the University and the business world, and of offering well-considered advice to students in the choice of a career, and to the governing bodies of schools and colleges, and other employers, in the choice of recruits for their services, we consider it to be important that an Appointments Bureau should be established by the University.
- (v) *University Press Committee.*—Calcutta is fortunate in already possessing a university press. The work which a press can do for the advancement of learning is of such importance that a Press Committee ought to have a distinctive and honourable place in the organisation of the University.

- (vi) *University Extension Board*.—One of the features of university work in Bengal which has most unfavourably impressed us is the fact that it is practically limited to the preparation of candidates for examinations, and that it makes scarcely any attempt to stimulate the general intellectual life of the Presidency. We think that some advance in this direction might be made possible if a Board were constituted to arrange courses of lectures, both English and vernacular, for the educated public in districts where such courses could be arranged upon a reasonably sound financial basis.

XIII.—*Appeals.*

89. We consider that some easy and effective remedy ought to be provided for any legitimate grievances felt by teachers both in the University itself and in the colleges: the courts of law, even when appeal to them would be possible, being at once too cumbrous and too costly for such cases. We therefore recommend that the University should be empowered by Statute to set up a tribunal of arbitration for the settlement of disputes between teachers and the University or any of its colleges. The tribunal should consist of men of high standing, not directly engaged in university work; and the University itself and its colleges should be bound by Statute to accept its decisions, acceptance being, in the case of the colleges, treated as a condition of the enjoyment of the privileges allotted to them.

90. Grievances of a vaguer and more general kind are not susceptible of so easy a solution. Yet such difficulties are likely to arise, especially in the first stages of a complex reorganisation such as we have proposed: individual colleges, particular communities, or special orders of teachers may possibly feel at times that their interests are being disregarded, or may even suppose, however unjustly, that the governing authorities of the University are influenced by an animus against them. It seems to us of great importance that safeguards should be provided against this kind of danger, the mere existence of such provision being likely to exercise a reconciling influence. We therefore propose that any institution or body of persons within the University who feel themselves aggrieved or injured by the acts or policy of the

university authorities should have the right of appeal to the Chancellor by petition; and that the Chancellor should be empowered, should he be satisfied that there is a *prima facie* case for enquiry, to appoint a small commission of investigation, the members of which should be persons of high standing not directly concerned in the affairs of the University; and on receiving their report, to communicate it to the Executive Council.

XIV.—*The Executive Commission.*

91. We have repeatedly alluded to the necessity of appointing an Executive Commission, with special powers, to guide the University through the critical period of transition from the old system to the new. So great a series of changes as we have proposed cannot be carried out by a mere Act of the legislature. The process of carrying into effect so far-reaching a scheme of reconstruction is in its nature widely different from the process of carrying on a system already in working order; and the bodies likely to be most suitable for the latter purpose may well be unsuitable for the former. Even if it were possible immediately to constitute the new organs of university governance which we have recommended, we should still think it necessary to urge the creation of a body with special powers to carry out the initial changes: in 1904, though the changes in structure then made were by no means fundamental in character, the attempt to start the new system with fully constituted Senates and Syndicates led to much confusion and delay. But the changes which we propose are much more far-reaching than those carried out in 1904. It would be impossible at once to constitute the proposed new governing bodies of the University, because the most important of them are themselves to consist largely of representatives of other bodies not yet in existence. For example, both the Executive and the Academic Councils are to include representatives of constituent colleges; and no such representatives can be appointed until it has been determined which are to be the constituent colleges.

92. Even for the purpose, therefore, of calling the new governing bodies into existence a special organ with special powers would be required. But there is much more than this to be done; much that will need the exercise of exceptional freedom of negotiation and of swift action, at once legislative and executive, such as ought not normally to be wielded by the executive body of a university.

93. It will be necessary, in particular, to define the conditions to be exacted from the various types of colleges we have described ; to negotiate with some of these and with Government in regard to the assistance they may require to enable them to undertake their new work ; to make special arrangements for the treatment of students of the intermediate grade during the transitional period when the proposed new system of intermediate colleges is being brought into working order, and for this purpose to negotiate with the colleges on the one hand, and with the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, on the other ; to determine which, if any, of the mufassal colleges ought to be encouraged and assisted to strive for early admission to the privileges of the proposed new grade of University Colleges ; to set on foot the machinery for the proposed new system of higher education for women ; and to bring into existence the new governing bodies of the University. For these purposes, in order that the difficult period of transition may be made as short and easy as possible, it seems to us to be essential that a small and powerful Commission, with exceptional powers of action, should be established by the Act reconstituting the University.¹

94. We recommend that this Commission should be a small body of not more than seven or, at the most, nine members, who should be appointed by the Governor-General in Council, as soon as possible after the passing of the Act, and should include the new whole-time Vice-Chancellor, a Treasurer, at least one representative of the Government of Bengal, at least one representative of industry and commerce, and at least one leading representative of each of the Hindu and Muslim communities.

95. We further recommend that the powers of the Commission should, over and above all the powers normally belonging to the Executive Council, include the following :—

- (i) To make and conclude arrangements with colleges which undertake within a defined period to fulfil the conditions required from constituent colleges of the Teaching University, particularly in regard to special provision for intermediate students.

¹See also Chapter XXXIV, paras. 179-180 and Chapter LII, paras. 53-63.

- (ii) To appoint, should there be delay in the establishment of the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, a provisional board or committee to deal with the recognition and examination of high English schools and intermediate colleges, in close association with an advisory committee of the Department of Public Instruction, should such be appointed.¹
- (iii) To draft and submit for the approval of the Government of Bengal a Statute or Statutes enumerating the colleges in Calcutta which shall be recognised as constituent colleges, and the colleges in the mufassal (if any) which shall be recognised as University Colleges, without waiting for the formal constitution of the Court.
- (iv) To define the conditions under which colleges in Calcutta shall be admitted to temporary affiliation, and to make Ordinances on this head.
- (v) To appoint a special committee, including academic members, to report to it upon questions relating to the temporarily affiliated colleges.
- (vi) To constitute a Provisional Academic Council, and to make, with its advice, such Ordinances relating to courses of study and examination as may be necessary.
- (vii) To consider, in consultation with the Government of Bengal, the financial arrangements necessary for the institution of the new system.
- (viii) And in general to carry out all such changes as may be necessary to bring the new system as rapidly as possible into operation, consistently with the provisions of the Act and the first Statutes appended thereto; provided that, in any case not contemplated or covered by the Act and Statutes, the Commission shall only act with the concurrence of the Government of Bengal.

¹ Chapter XXXI, paras. 29 and 30.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

THE SITE OF THE UNIVERSITY.¹

I.—The proposal to remove the University.

1. All universities which are planted in great cities find themselves faced by problems of peculiar difficulty. The acquisition of land for necessary university purposes is always costly in a great city ; and the provision for the students of healthy conditions of life, and of opportunities for recreation and for social intercourse, is surrounded with obstacles. But these difficulties are exceptionally great in Calcutta, perhaps greater than anywhere else. Not only is land exorbitantly dear ; but the number of students for whom provision has to be made is probably larger than in any other university city, while the social usages of India do not lend themselves to the provision on a large scale of accommodation in cheap and respectable lodgings, which forms the main solution of the problem of residence in the West. Yet unless and until these difficulties are overcome, or very materially reduced, it must be impossible to create a wholly satisfactory system of university education ; and the projects of reform which we have put forward must in some degree fail of their intended results. Somehow space and means must be found for proper class-rooms, laboratories and libraries. Not less important, somehow means must be found for dealing with the problem of students' residence, and for giving the students opportunities for recreation.

2. The fundamental importance of this problem is so obvious that for many years past it has been urged that no adequate solution for it can be found, short of a total transplantation of the University and all its work from the crowded central area of Calcutta to a rural or, at the least, a suburban site. This project was seriously considered as long ago as 1906, when the reforms initiated by the Universities Act of 1904 were being put into operation. At that date it would have been relatively easy to acquire a large suburban area near enough to the centre of the city to be accessible

¹ See the map of Calcutta included in Volume II of this report.

to the majority of the students resident in Calcutta, and extensive enough to allow of provision not only for class-rooms, libraries and laboratories, but for residential hostels, houses for the staff, and playing fields. The opportunity was lost. Since that date, Calcutta has grown so rapidly that it is now practically impossible to find a large enough free area within easy reach of all parts of the city, and ground values have risen so enormously that even a more distant area would be very costly to acquire. The only free area of sufficient size which we have been able to discover would be about nine miles from College Square, and proportionately further from some of the residential districts of the city. It would therefore be all but impossible for a large proportion of the students who now live at home, to attend daily classes on this site; and to that extent the problem of residence would be intensified. Nevertheless, so difficult is the present state of things that a large number of our correspondents still feel that removal presents the only satisfactory solution of the problem.¹

3. The proposals for educational reorganisation which we have put forward must, if adopted, materially affect the problem of the site, which ought to be envisaged afresh from the point of view of these proposals.

4. In the first place, some of our proposals will undoubtedly tend to reduce the congestion of the student-population in Calcutta. The system of intermediate colleges, once it is fully carried into effect, will withdraw from university classes two-thirds of the undergraduate students who now attend them. A majority of those who now do intermediate work in Calcutta colleges come from the mufassal districts, and these would, under our scheme, be mainly provided for in mufassal intermediate colleges nearer to their homes; and although, even in the mufassal, residential accommodation would have to be provided for a large proportion of the students, this provision can be made more cheaply and in many respects more healthily at mufassal centres than in Calcutta. As for the intermediate students whose homes are in Calcutta, their needs could be met by intermediate colleges distributed in various parts of the city; not more than one or two intermediate colleges would have to be provided in the crowded central area. The withdrawal for a more appropriate kind of

¹ See Chapter XX, where the evidence is analysed.

training near their homes of so large a proportion of the students who now congregate in the central area of Calcutta, and especially of the younger students, who suffer most from the dangers of city life, would of itself greatly simplify the residential problem.

5. Other features of our scheme would, we may hope, gradually tend in the same direction. It is our hope that the provision of more practical and varied courses of study at the intermediate stage will lead to a diminution in the number of students who now pass on to purely literary courses in the University.—An increasing proportion of students will, we hope, pass direct from the intermediate colleges into practical careers of various kinds; and of those who still continue to pursue higher courses, a growing proportion may be expected to follow new schemes of study of a more practical kind, in commerce, in dentistry, in engineering, in agriculture and in various branches of technological science. While the latter development would not reduce the residential problem, it would reduce the pressure upon the classroom accommodation of the ordinary colleges; the former development would be helpful in both respects, besides fostering the healthy economic development of Bengal.

6. Again, the creation of a well organised teaching university at Dacca, giving accommodation to about twice as many post-intermediate students as now resort to the colleges in that city, and the gradual development of more efficiently organised university colleges for post-intermediate work at selected mufassal centres, would certainly contribute to check the drain into Calcutta, and to reduce the unhealthy congestion of the student-population in the metropolis, which is the root-difficulty with which we have to contend.

7. But while in these ways our scheme of educational reform will, if fully carried into effect, contribute materially to ease the situation, there are other aspects of our proposals which will introduce new elements of complexity. In the first place we have recommended that the course of study after the intermediate stage and before the degree should be prolonged from two to three years. This would necessarily involve the increase of the number of undergraduate students at this stage by fifty *per cent*; and this means that, supposing the intermediate students to be otherwise provided for, and the total number of students entering upon the

degree course in each year to undergo no increase, provision would have to be made for the needs of at least half as many students as at present. But it is certainly not safe, in view of the steady and rapid annual increase in recent years, to build upon the assumption that the total number of students will not grow. Even when the new intermediate system is fully at work, and when the facilities thus afforded have enabled students in increasing numbers to find remunerative employment without proceeding to the degree course, it is unsafe to assume that the relief thus afforded would do much more than balance the normal increase of students entering upon the intermediate stage. And during the years which must pass before the intermediate system is made fully operative in all parts of Bengal, the number of degree students will certainly continue to grow. The problem will therefore remain at least as acute as it was five years ago; the intermediate system will at best prevent it from becoming more acute.

8. The kind of university training advocated and described in Chapter XXXIV involves the substitution for the present system of self-contained colleges of a system of inter-collegiate co-operation, guided and supplemented by the University. But if this system is to work well, it is obvious that the colleges participating in it must be within easy reach of one another, and of the common centre. It is not suggested that most of them are at present too widely separated to be able to co-operate with effect; though in one or two cases the distance is so great as to form a real obstacle. But we have urged that the creation of some new colleges will be almost essential if the whole body of post-intermediate students in Calcutta are to be effectively brought under the new system.¹ It will be at once difficult, and extremely costly, under existing conditions, to find suitable sites for any new colleges within easy reach of College Square. It would be still more difficult, and still more costly, to make provision for students' residence on an adequate scale in the same area. It would be impossible to provide, within this area, suitable spaces wherein so large a body of students could find the means of recreation and physical training.

¹ Chapter XXXIV, paras. 170-177;

9. These considerations would seem to suggest that our proposals for educational reform make it desirable that, if it be at all possible, the University and its constituent colleges should be removed to a new site. And, indeed, it must be obvious that removal would very greatly increase the possibility of the reformed system of teaching being successfully worked. If the University and all its colleges, with all their residential hostels, were clustered together on a well thought-out plan, in the neighbourhood of good playing fields, not only would effective co-operation among them be immensely facilitated, but the buildings themselves could be so planned from the first as to lend themselves readily to work of the new type, and the friendly relationship between teachers and students which we desire to see cultivated would be greatly facilitated. The economy in students' time and in teaching-power and the increase in efficiency which would result would be very great indeed ; while the evils which result from the present state of things might be effectively controlled, even if they could not be absolutely banished. Unquestionably, from the point of view of our proposals, we should be led to advocate immediate removal, if there were no other considerations to be held in view.

10. Unfortunately the problem cannot be so easily solved. There are important countervailing factors which must not be left out of account. Even if the University and all its colleges could be removed to a site (say) nine miles distant from College Square, there would be loss as well as gain. To begin with, it is not by any means certain that the advantage in the way of health would be as great as at first sight appears. Calcutta is a relatively healthy city ; in particular, it is remarkably free from the curse of malaria, which is so serious in many parts of the mufassal ; and this reputation for healthiness draws many students into the city. But the areas outside the municipal limits are less healthy, at all events in regard to malaria ; and a new university quarter would not be free from danger until it had been provided with an elaborate system of drainage. This would take some years ; and would add very materially to the cost of site and buildings. Again, it is at least doubtful whether the sites of the existing university and college buildings could be sold at such a price as would even approximately cover the cost of the new erection ; and many excellent buildings, some of them quite recently erected,

would have to be scrapped. Too much stress ought not to be laid upon this consideration ; but it ought not to be left out of account.

11. More serious is the fact that by removal to such a distance the University would be to some extent cut off from the life of the city. As things are, this would not matter much, since university work has at present too little relation to many aspects of the life of the community. This ought not to continue. For example, should the University develop a serious study of the sciences which lie at the base of commercial practice, it would not only be important that this work should be carried on near the commercial centre and the commercial museum, but it would be necessary that instruction should be provided for men actually engaged in commercial work, near their offices ; this is the way in which British experience shows that commercial training can be most advantageously given. Technological institutes, if they are to render their full service to the community, should be planted near the industries which they serve. The study of law ought not to be carried on out of touch with the law-courts, especially as most of the teachers of law are engaged in practice. Medical studies cannot be withdrawn from the great hospitals, which are necessarily in the midst of the city. Students of pure arts or science ought to be able to make use of the Imperial Library and the Imperial Museum ; few sufficiently do so at present, it is true, but under a sound system serious students would certainly need to do so. It may perhaps be urged that professional and technical studies might well be left in the city, only the pure arts and science subjects being removed. But this would have many drawbacks. Not only would it break up the University, and forbid that free communication of men aiming at many different careers which is one of the chief benefits of university life ; but it would be in many ways uneconomical and hurtful to progress. The study of commercial subjects ought to be organised in relation with the study of pure economics and geography, and the study of law in relation with history and political science ; the technological applications of science cannot without danger be divorced from the pure sciences on which they rest ; the study of medicine is dependent upon the sciences, and it is wasteful to provide a wholly separate system to teach all these sciences to medical students alone.

12. If the University of Calcutta is to cease to be a mere organisation for the conferment of degrees and the preparation of the students who seek them, and if it is to become, like the great modern universities of the West, genuinely a city university, it must have organic relations with the city which it serves; and its removal, or the removal of the main part of it, to a considerable distance from the centre of the city, would place real obstacles in the way of this. When the University of Birmingham acquired a new site for the main part of its work outside the city (though only about two miles from its centre) it found it necessary still to utilise its old buildings as a means of keeping touch with the city. Yet we attach so much importance to the social and educational difficulties arising from the present location of the University that we should be prepared to recommend that the real drawbacks described above should be disregarded, and that the removal of the University and of all its arts colleges should if possible be effected, were it not that there are other difficulties, yet greater, to be taken into account.

13. In the first place, the success of the project must depend upon whether it is possible to remove simultaneously all the colleges in the city, or all the arts colleges, to the new site. But it is at the least improbable that this could be done. Some of the colleges would almost certainly wish to remain on their present sites; the missionary colleges, for example, would scarcely be ready to cut themselves off from the centres of their non-academic work. But unless all the colleges were simultaneously removed, the system of co-operative inter-collegiate work which we have recommended would manifestly be impracticable; and the method of trusting to the resources of self-contained colleges, to which we have traced many of the defects of the present system, would continue.

14. In the second place, a large proportion of the student population of Calcutta—more than two-fifths in 1917—live either with their parents or, under the joint-family system, with relatives or natural guardians. This is an altogether healthy state of things; it is not the system of guardianship in itself, but the gross abuses which have grown up about it, that we desire to see amended. It is better, in nine cases out of ten, that the student should live at home than that he should live at a hostel. But if

the University and its colleges were removed from the central area, which is accessible from all parts of the city, to a distant suburb at one of the extreme limits of the city, many of the students who now reside at home would find it impossible to do so. The difficulty would be only partially met by a service of trams; the journeys would in some cases be far too long; the pressure upon the accommodation in the mornings and afternoons would be too great to be met by any single service; and the cost of daily tram-fares would be a very material increment to the student's expenditure. The result might be to increase very greatly the demand for residential accommodation on the new site. And even if this demand were met, the problem would still not be solved. A real grievance would be felt by those students and their parents who lived in the remoter districts of the city; and this grievance could only be met in one way, by the creation of new colleges near their homes. The traditions of the Indian educational system would make this appear to be the obvious solution; it would also seem the most economical solution; and the possibility of bringing about an effective co-operation among all institutions of university rank within the city of Calcutta would be destroyed. And it is probable that when such colleges had been established, students from outside Calcutta would resort to them rather than to the more expensive and more isolated residential university in the outskirts. Thus the problem of to-day would be gradually recreated. What is more, since these new colleges would almost necessarily be weak and poorly equipped, they would form an obstacle to that improvement in the quality of the training given to the students, and to that heightening of the public estimation of what a university course should connote, which it has been one of our main objects to secure.

15. The truth is that, in the modern world, a city of the magnitude of Calcutta must have a university as part of its essential civic endowment. This aspect of university work has been obscured by the unreality and abstractness of the kind of work hitherto undertaken by universities in India. But it will not remain permanently obscured. And if, to meet the urgent difficulties of the moment, the main centre of undergraduate work is removed far enough from the heart of Calcutta to cut it off from the city's life—and no site sufficiently large is available within easy reach

of the heart of the city—the result must be, sooner or later, that another university will spring up within the city.

16. For these reasons we feel ourselves reluctantly compelled to the conclusion that a removal of the University as a whole, or even of its undergraduate work in the Faculties of Arts and Science, is inadvisable and impracticable. It is inadvisable because it would not, in the long run, solve the problem. It is impracticable because the financial adjustment involved would be very difficult. For the number of students to be provided for even after the intermediate classes have been otherwise dealt with, might be twice as great as the number of undergraduates in Oxford or Cambridge. They would have to be supplied not only with lecture-rooms, laboratories and libraries, but with residential quarters. The space required for residential hostels for 6,000 students, and houses for perhaps 300 teachers, would be very great; the cost of erecting them immense. Add to these requirements open spaces for playing fields, and housing for the army of servants who would necessarily be employed, and the magnitude of the proposal will become apparent.

II.—Proposals for the future.

17. But although it is not practicable to remove the University as a whole, it does not follow that nothing should be done, or that vigorous and systematic action is not necessary in order to deal with the grave evils for whose solution the project of removal was intended. Vigorous and systematic action is necessary not only in dealing with the university problem, but in an equal degree in dealing with the provision of intermediate colleges and the improvement of the high schools in the city of Calcutta. In some respects these are distinct problems. But all alike are affected by the high cost of land in the city, and the difficulty of finding adequate accommodation. The conditions under which much of the work of the high schools is carried on in Calcutta constitute a not less serious evil than the conditions of university work. The description given in an earlier chapter of one of the bad schools of Calcutta¹ portrays a state of things for which no condemnation can be too strong. That school stands by no means alone; and

¹ See Chapter VIII, para. 51.

the social, political and educational dangers which are nourished by it and its type can only be dealt with if the problem of finding suitable sites, and of using them to the best advantage, is seriously taken in hand. This can, in our judgment, only be satisfactorily done if the university problem is not taken separately, but is treated as part of a larger whole; and if the need of finding suitable accommodation for educational institutions of all types is systematically dealt with by Government, the Corporation and the Improvement Trust. It appears to us to be obvious that for ends of such vital importance powers of compulsory land acquisition at fair prices should be vested in some appropriate authority; and that the proper distribution and the adequate housing of educational institutions ought to be regarded as one of the essential elements in that function of intelligent town-planning which is now regarded as among the duties of city authorities everywhere. For this purpose some form of joint action in consultation between the Improvement Trust, and the authorities of the University, and the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, would seem to be indicated.

18. So far as concerns the intermediate colleges, the problem is relatively simple. If the intermediate students in the mufassal are provided for in the mufassal, it will (apart from rare exceptional cases) only be necessary to provide for Calcutta students; and the accommodation required for them need not be provided wholly or mainly in the crowded central area, but can be most advantageously distributed in various parts of the city. But when the time comes to erect new intermediate colleges (in so far as new buildings are necessary) we urge that the design of the colleges should be adapted to the conditions of city life; and that the great cost of sites should be diminished, as it is in all great cities, by the erection of compact and lofty buildings such as will economise space to the utmost possible extent. As for the high schools, when the time comes for undertaking their reorganisation in a systematic way, the same device will (as in other cities) help to overcome the difficulty. Many of the high schools of Calcutta are to-day conducted in old quadrangular two-storey houses, which are quite unsuitable for the purpose, and very uneconomical of space. On their existing sites far more adequate accommodation could readily be provided for a larger number of pupils.

19. As for the University, it is manifest that if the project of removal is abandoned, a definite policy must be adopted for the future. College Square is the obvious centre of university activity; and if the co-operative system of teaching which we recommend is to be made fully effective, it is important that all buildings intended to be used for purposes of instruction should be within easy reach of College Square. The most desirable thing would be that the whole frontage of the Square should be acquired for university purposes. This would be too costly, to be seriously proposed as a single operation. Yet we would urge that no opportunities of acquiring land with a frontage on the Square should be missed, even if the land be not immediately required for any defined purpose. It is folly in such matters to pursue a hand-to-mouth policy, and to take no action until a block of land is required for some specific purpose. In the same way land in the near neighbourhood of this central point, though not actually fronting on the Square, should be acquired as occasion offers, and let out at a rental until the moment comes when it is needed. Such a policy, if backed by Government, and rendered possible by legal powers of land acquisition, need not be wasteful of money. It would render possible the concentration at the heart of the university quarter of any new colleges that may be erected, and of all the various developments of university activity which may be anticipated in the future.

20. But we do not suggest that space should be found, in this central and exceedingly costly area, for all the residential accommodation required by students and teachers. To aim at this would be a mistake; and we cannot but feel that the large sums already expended on big hostels in this region might have been made to go further had a systematic policy in these matters been thought out. As is suggested in Chapter XXXIX, a good deal may be done by adapting private houses for the purposes of students' residence, provided that the existing practice which forbids such houses to be rented for a longer period than one year is abrogated, and houses are leased for a long enough period to make it worth a landlord's while to make the necessary adaptations. But the main provision for residence, both of teachers and of students, as well as for playing fields, must be made elsewhere. For these purposes land may well be acquired

in the suburbs, not necessarily all in one area ; since, if the centre of the University is retained at College Square, complete centralisation of residences will no longer be necessary. It would plainly be easier to acquire, within a practicable distance, two or three relatively small areas than one of very great dimensions such as would be required for a complete transplantation.

21. The recommendations which we should put forward would therefore be :—

- (a) That the idea of completely transplanting the University and all its colleges, or even only its work in the Faculties of Arts and Science, to a suburban site be abandoned.
- (b) That the administrative and teaching centre of the University should remain in the neighbourhood of College Square.
- (c) That every practicable opportunity should be taken for obtaining suitable sites in this area, and especially sites with a frontage on the Square.
- (d) That the attempt to concentrate residences for teachers and students in the immediate neighbourhood of College Square should be abandoned ; and that land for this purpose, and also for playing fields, should be acquired in the suburbs, not necessarily all in one place, though all the hostels attached to a particular college should so far as possible be in a single area.¹
- (e) That intermediate colleges should be distributed in different parts of the city ; and that the buildings of such colleges should be so designed as to make the most economical use of the available sites.
- (f) That the geographical distribution of high schools in various parts of the city and the provision of suitable buildings for them should be considered by the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education, and that the planning of schools should be arranged so as to make the most economical use of the available sites.

¹ It has been suggested that one suitable site might be found in Maniktola, which is more readily accessible from College Square than most other suburban regions, and where a scheme of improvement is in contemplation.

- (g) That with a view to the framing of a co-ordinated and systematic plan for the provision of suitable accommodation for educational institutions, Government should ask for a joint consideration of and report on the problem as a whole from the Improvement Trust, the Corporation, the Executive Commission of the University, and the Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education; and that, a policy having been framed, either the Improvement Trust, or some other body or bodies acting in conjunction with it should be given powers of compulsory land-acquisition for these purposes.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

IMPROVED CONDITIONS OF STUDENT LIFE.

I.—Urgency of the problem : principles upon which a solution should be based.

1. One of the most urgent educational needs of Bengal is a drastic reform of the conditions under which many of the students live. In an earlier chapter¹ we have shown what injury is done to the health and character of great numbers of students by their present surroundings. If the present conditions continue, other reforms in university education will be inefficacious. The problem is intricate and difficult. No solution is possible unless there is closer co-operation between the University and its colleges, each undertaking definite responsibilities and being assisted with funds for the discharge of its onerous obligations. A remedy for the existing evils must in any case be slow in its operation. But the plan which we have proposed for the reconstitution of the University of Calcutta, together with the establishment of the University of Dacca, and for the future administration of secondary and intermediate education in Bengal will, we believe, lead to great improvements in the present conditions, if sufficient funds are forthcoming for the purpose.

2. Though grave in many of the mufassal centres, the evil is most patent and is seen on the largest scale in the city of Calcutta, where great numbers of young and immature students live under conditions injurious to health and unfavourable to character. A feature of the reconstruction of the university system proposed in this report is the transference of the first two years of the present course to a number of new institutions to be established under the name of 'intermediate colleges' at convenient centres throughout the Presidency. This plan will enable many students who have completed their course at the high school to take the next stage in their education under healthier conditions and with educational

¹ Chapter XIX.

advantages hitherto denied to them. The adoption of this plan for the establishment of intermediate colleges would thus remove some of the most serious evils of the present situation in Calcutta. We anticipate that when the intermediate colleges are fully at work a large number¹ of the younger students, instead of being congested in Calcutta, will receive a better education in pleasanter and often healthier surroundings. But it should be remembered that good residential accommodation will have to be provided for many of these students at the intermediate colleges in the mufassal.

3. We recommend that, subject to the necessary funds being forthcoming, the problem of students' residence should be dealt with upon the following principles both in Calcutta and in the mufassal :—

- (a) Every college in association with the University should be responsible for the conditions under which its students live, and no college should be allowed to enrol or retain on its books any student not residing with his parents, or with his legal guardian or with a guardian approved by the principal, unless it provides him with accommodation in a college hostel or mess, or is satisfied that he is living in an inter-collegiate hostel approved by the University.
- (b) The University should be responsible for seeing that all the colleges fulfil their obligations in regard to the residence of their students. It should have the power of enforcing the discharge of these obligations and should have the means of ascertaining that they are duly observed. The University should also give assistance to the colleges in their negotiations with the owners of properties suitable for residential purposes and should help the college authorities by expert advice on building plans. Its recognition should be necessary in the case of inter-collegiate hostels and also in the case of unattached messes, though we hope that the latter will soon be superseded by inter-collegiate hostels. The University

¹ There were over 5,000 mufassal students reading in the intermediate classes of Calcutta colleges in 1917-18.

should have the right of inspecting all students' residences.

- (c) The capital outlay required for the building of hostels should be borne by public funds or private subscriptions. In the case of attached messes in hired houses, that part of the annual rent which represents the interest on the original capital expenditure (an amount which may be estimated at 30 per cent. of the rent) should be met from those sources. The salaries of superintendents should be defrayed, in whole or at any rate in part, from public funds. In hostels the fees paid by the students for their accommodation should be fixed at a rate which will keep the buildings in proper repair and pay the municipal rates and the establishment charges for water, lighting, etc. In attached messes the fees paid by the students should meet the cost of municipal rates (usually included in the rent), water, lighting and other establishment charges, together with that part of the rent not paid out of public funds or private subscriptions. The University should require each college to fix the rent payable by students residing in its hostels and collegiate messes at a sum which will cover the items of expenditure named above. But we see no objection to different rates of charge being made for different rooms in hostels and messes according to the accommodation which they provide.
- (d) Every undergraduate student of the University should be a member of a college. Those graduate students for whom the colleges may not be able to provide accommodation—and we hope that they will be a gradually diminishing number—should be enrolled as an organised non-collegiate body under the supervision of a special board of the University, which should extend to the students thus under its care the help and supervision which they would otherwise have received from the authorities of a college. Every member of a college, and every member of the body of non-collegiate students under university supervision, should be assign-

ed to a member of the teaching staff¹ whose duty it should be to act as adviser to the students thus assigned to his personal care.

4. Our reason for recommending that each college should be directly responsible for the residence of its members is that no remoter authority is competent to discharge an obligation which involves intimate knowledge of individual circumstances. But we regard the University as also having some measure of responsibility because the degrees which it confers connote a training in which other than purely intellectual factors are implied. The University must be in a position to assure the public that the students to whom it awards its degrees have received their training under conditions favourable to health and character as well as to intellectual attainment. Further, we regard the Government as having some share of responsibility in the matter, partly on general grounds of public welfare and order, partly because it is to the interest of the State that the work of the University should be done under conditions which will produce among those who receive university training a high level of character and competence, and partly because it is not possible to make university education wholly self-supporting whether on the side of intellectual discipline or of the training which is given through corporate life. At the same time we feel that university education should not be eleemosynary, except in deserving cases of special need. Each student who lives in a college hostel or mess should pay his fair quota of the actual cost of maintaining the residential advantages which he enjoys. Otherwise an unfair share of the burden of the cost of university education would fall upon those families whose sons reside at home or with approved guardians during their university course. The cases of students who are too poor to pay the whole expense of the university training of which they have proved themselves worthy, should be met by scholarships, stipends and free places.

5. In later paragraphs of this chapter we shall make recommendations for securing increased care for the health and physical development of all university students, improved conditions of corporate life in the colleges in Calcutta and the mufassal, and more experienced supervision of hostels. But these changes should accompany

¹ Corresponding to the house-tutor suggested for the University of Dacca, see Chapter XXXIII, paras. 138 and 139.

improvements in the present conditions under which a large number of the students now reside, and we shall therefore deal in the first instance with the question of providing both in Calcutta and in the mufassal suitable accommodation upon the scale necessary to meet existing and probable requirements.

II.—Provision of residences for students in Calcutta.

6. In order that the residential arrangements for students in Calcutta may be put on a proper footing and be satisfactorily maintained, large sums of money will be required. We hope that private benefactors will feel that the residential side of university life has a strong claim on their generosity. But we anticipate that aid from public funds will also be necessary in order to put an end to the present evils and, when the present residential arrangements have been improved, to keep them in a satisfactory state.

7. It is not possible at this stage to give any exact estimate of the sums which will be required from public funds for these purposes. The future alone can decide to what extent the intermediate colleges will succeed in providing for the needs of mufassal students, and how far the establishment of the University of Dacca and the development of university colleges in the mufassal will affect the number of students in Calcutta. During the period of reconstruction, therefore, it would be unwise to provide in Calcutta hostel accommodation for mufassal students which in later years might not be required. Nor is it possible to ascertain whether residences near College Square will be available in any number as attached messes or, as we would prefer to call them, collegiate messes; and there is as yet no guarantee that suburban sites will prove attractive to students. Progress therefore can only be slow and tentative.

8. There is a further reason for acting cautiously in this matter. The hostel system is comparatively new to India and has not yet been well-adapted, save under exceptionally favourable circumstances, to Indian social conditions. Differences of caste and creed might well become serious if compulsory residence in hostels were hurriedly enforced. In any case, the selection and training of well-qualified superintendents would occupy a considerable time. It is only by gradual steps and by cautious experiment that the residential system can be made a real success in India.

9. Any estimate of the number of students who will, under the new conditions, pursue courses leading up to a university degree must be largely conjectural. But it may be anticipated that, if the demand for university education continues to increase in Bengal at its present rate, the number of students who will take the degree courses in Calcutta will ultimately be larger than the number of those who (having passed the intermediate examinations in arts and science) are now taking the degree courses at colleges in the city. And when, as is proposed in this report, the courses of study for the degree are extended to three years after the completion of the course at the intermediate college, each of these students will reside for three years instead of two. Assuming the number of medical and post-graduate students to remain unchanged, there will be not less than 10,685 students in the reconstituted university attending courses in Calcutta. Of these, we calculate on the basis of the present figures, about forty per cent. will be living with their parents or with approved guardians. Residential accommodation will therefore be required for about 6,411 students. There is already hostel accommodation in Calcutta for 2,257 and, in addition to this, 2,553 students are now residing in attached messes. Broadly speaking, therefore, we may say that new hostel accommodation will be required in the immediate future for 1,600 students, and that, in order to transform the attached messes into hostels, additional hostel accommodation for about 2,000 would be needed. The expenditure upon hostels recently built in Calcutta shows that the cost (excluding that of site) of providing hostel accommodation is about Rs. 1,000 for each student. This expenditure has provided dining rooms and common rooms but rarely includes gymnasia for the students or residential quarters for superintendents. On a rough calculation, therefore, it may be estimated that, excluding the cost of sites, about 16 lakhs will be required for the provision of new hostels in the immediate future; and that subsequently a proportionate additional sum would be needed in order to replace the attached messes by hostels.¹

10. The best form of residence for the great majority of university students living temporarily in Calcutta is the collegiate hostel. During the last seven years, the Government has made generous

¹ See Financial Estimate for hostel accommodation in the volume of appendices to this report.

contributions towards the cost of new hostel accommodation. More than two-thirds of the 50 lakhs which have been expended on hostels in Bengal has been spent in the city of Calcutta. But, in spite of this large expenditure, there were in 1917 as many as 4,500 students who were still living under unapproved conditions in the city. The cost of land, the dense population of the district, and the necessity of utilising all available sites in the university quarter for university and collegiate requirements, will make it impossible to concentrate in that neighbourhood all or any large part of the additional hostel accommodation required.

11. A preferable course therefore will be to build new collegiate hostels in the suburbs. Where this plan is adopted, the hostels should be built in blocks of moderate size with teachers' quarters in the near vicinity. We do not suggest that all or even a large number of the hostels should be concentrated on a single site, but it is important that the hostels attached to the same college should be near one another. This division of collegiate hostels into smaller groups of buildings would conduce to greater individuality of corporate life and would afford better opportunities for the satisfactory organisation of tutorial work and of superintendence.

12. Inter-collegiate as well as collegiate hostels should be encouraged. Hostels of the former type meet the needs of students who, though attached to different colleges, wish to live together because they belong to the same religion, race, caste or locality.¹ Many of the inter-collegiate hostels are excellently managed. We hope that the associations which have done good work in this direction in the past may now find it possible to extend the scope of their activities and that other bodies may be willing to undertake this important work.

13. As, in view of the great expense entailed, the provision of new collegiate and inter-collegiate hostels in Calcutta will necessarily be a slow process, we must rely to a considerable extent upon the development of attached or collegiate messes housed in buildings originally designed for domestic use. Many such premises can be well adapted by structural changes to the needs of the student community. It is true that where the number of students whom it

¹ For example, the provision of hostels for students of the Domiciled Community should not be overlooked. And there will be increasing need for hostels for students of the now backward classes.

can accommodate is small, the collegiate or attached mess affords fewer facilities for corporate life. On the other hand, the attached mess like a collegiate hostel is identified with a particular college, is under collegiate supervision and may be a very pleasant place of residence. The chief objection to any large extension of residences of this type lies in the fact that it is impossible, except at an unduly heavy cost, to provide a resident superintendent for each of the large number of small residential units. But, wherever possible, the attached mess should be housed in a building large enough to accommodate 30 students.

14. Hitherto the chief defect in the system of attached messes has been that the houses hired for the purpose have been taken only on one year's lease, the reason for this being that the University has had insufficient resources to enter into an agreement for a longer period; and, as has been shewn above¹, the Government of India have not approved of this type of residence. Consequently, it has not been worth the while of the owners of the property to make structural changes in buildings in order to adapt them for use as places of residence for students. Facilities are now needed for taking long leases of suitable houses, making in them the necessary structural changes and putting them in good order for students' use. We note that the attached messes are becoming more permanently established and that the leases are frequently renewed from year to year with the result that some of the houses have already acquired a semi-permanent connexion with a college. This shows that what we are proposing corresponds with the general tendency. We recommend that the University be empowered, at the request of a college, to negotiate with the owner of a suitable property for a long lease of the premises and for the carrying out of the necessary structural alterations. By thus acting through the University the colleges would avoid competing with each other for the same houses and would secure suitable accommodation at the lowest possible rate. We hope that Government will allow its grants to be expended in part on rents for houses which have been taken on lease and have been adapted for use as collegiate messes under proper supervision.

15. We propose therefore that the need of additional students' residences in Calcutta should be met by the provision of new col-

¹ Chapter XIX, para. 31

legiate and inter-collegiate hostels, mainly in the suburbs, and by an increased provision of attached messes in adapted buildings and under collegiate supervision. We agree with the majority of our correspondents that the unattached mess is an undesirable form of residence and that, in the interests of health and discipline, it should be discontinued as soon as possible.

16. Though the responsibility of providing proper residential accommodation for all its students would fall upon each college, important duties must devolve in this connexion upon the University also. The latter would be responsible for framing general regulations as to the plans of hostels and students' residences and for ascertaining that these regulations are observed by the colleges. We recommend that these responsibilities should be assigned to the Executive Council (or, during the period of reconstruction, to the Executive Commission). The Executive Council should appoint an executive officer competent to advise it on any plans which may be submitted for approval. With this officer might be associated the Inspector of Messes who would report to the Council as to the observance of the university regulations in the hostels and messes attached to the colleges. With the help of these officers it will be possible for the Council to deal promptly with any application received from the colleges for the approval of hostel plans or for the recognition of premises for use as an attached mess. We suggest these arrangements because in many cases it will be necessary for the college to secure the University's approval for a plan with the least possible delay. For other questions affecting the residence of students, the Executive Council will be able to take the advice of the Board of Students' Welfare proposed in paragraph 38 below. To this Board, we recommend, should stand referred all questions relating to the health and welfare of the students except those which require immediate settlement of plans, sanction of houses proposed to be taken on lease, negotiations with the landlords,¹ etc.

17. The Executive Council of the University, after consultation with the colleges concerned, should submit estimates from time

¹ Increased hostel accommodation for the law and medical students is urgently needed in Calcutta. As regards hostels for Muslim students, we recommend that the Taylor and Baker Hostels should be collegiate hostels in connexion with the Islamic and Presidency Colleges; and that the Carmichael Hostel should be inter-collegiate under a committee of management appointed by the Executive Council on the nomination of the Muslim Advisory Board.

to time to Government for suitable residential accommodation for students in accordance with a well considered plan of progressive development. Whether that residential subsidy be paid by the Government direct to the college or through the channel of the University, we think it important that each college should know at the beginning of each year upon what sum it can count for the maintenance of its residential arrangements.

18. Under the system of instruction proposed in this report many students will find it necessary to attend, under the advice of the college authorities, some courses of lectures given in the university buildings or in colleges other than their own. The students living in hostels in the suburbs will need a club-house or institute close to the University where they can find in the intervals between lectures a convenient working place and shelter in the rains. The University Institute might serve this purpose. It has hitherto met with less success than was anticipated. This has been partly due to the fact that its scheme of management has no direct connexion with the University. We recommend that the Institute should be placed more directly under the control of representatives of the University and its colleges.¹

III.—Provision of students' residences in the mufassal.

19. In the mufassal, as in Calcutta, we propose that the responsibility for securing suitable accommodation for every student should fall upon the college authorities and we suggest that in every college there should be a committee, including the principal and a medical man, for the supervision of this side of college work. In some of the mufassal colleges, especially in Bankura, Serampore, Gauhati

¹ The experiment might be tried of opening one or two small club-houses or institutes in the student-quarter of Calcutta, in addition to what has been already provided by the Young Men's Christian Association. The attractive design and arrangements of the Ronaldshay Hut on the *maidan* and the excellent use to which it has been put by soldiers during the war suggest that something of the same sort might be done for students. Each institute should contain well lighted and comfortable rooms for conversation, reading and games, as well as a room for lectures. It should be in the charge of a superintendent, chosen for his gifts in organising social work of this kind. On his tact and experience the success of the institute would mainly depend. Fortunately it would be possible to find the right men among the young Indians who have shown great capacity and initiative in the superintendence of Young Men's Christian Association huts at the front during the war.

and Mymensingh, we have found the hostel arrangements well supervised, but in other mufassal centres more effective supervision is badly needed.

20. The problem of students' residence in the new University of Dacca, which is dealt with in Chapter XXXIII, requires no further treatment here. In many of the mufassal towns there is difficulty in finding suitable houses which can be adapted for residential use by the students, particularly by Musalmans. The problem, therefore, in the mufassal will lie mainly in the provision of new hostels and in their superintendence.

21. The need of more hostels in the mufassal is already great ; but the establishment of intermediate colleges, while relieving the congestion in Calcutta, will render the need even greater. The provision for these needs should be made on a comprehensive plan. Hitherto, each mufassal college has to a large extent gone its own way, building hostels or not building them, as the case might be. There has been no attempt to grapple with the question as a whole ; in consequence, the efforts made have been largely ineffective and sometimes wasteful.

22. Many factors will have to be taken into consideration in building up a well-devised hostel policy and in spending the available resources to the best effect. In the first place, there is the question of malaria. Expert advice is needed to prevent a large expenditure on hostels in places which are notoriously or increasingly malarious ; and also to encourage the building of hostels in those places which are considered healthy for the students or which may be made so.

23. Again, in some places sites are easily available with ample room for expansion ; in others the reverse is the case. At Rangpur, a liberal site has been acquired for the college, and commodious hostels are being built. At Bankura there are admirable opportunities for expansion ; and at Chittagong suitable sites can be secured. At Rajshahi, on the other hand, there are difficulties in making adequate provision for the residence of students. Some of our members visited the messes in the town and were by no means satisfied with what they found. They were told that it was very difficult to find suitable houses near the college. At Comilla also the arrangements are unsatisfactory. Hostel accommodation

will be needed to a greater extent in the university colleges than in the other mufassal colleges.

24. The hostel problem in the mufassal, therefore, can only be solved by careful experiment and by systematic investigation. For these reasons we suggest that the Board of Mufassal Colleges should appoint a special committee to report on the whole question of hostel development in the mufassal centres. That committee should take advice from the college authorities which have been successful in the planning and supervision of hostels. It would also receive assistance from the Board of Students' Welfare mentioned in paragraph 38 below. We suggest that this Board should prepare a pamphlet containing good model plans for hostels of various sizes together with practical hints as to their design and management. The report should review the results of experiments that have already been made, and should offer suggestions in regard to the best disposition of rooms, kitchens, etc., and other such matters.

25. We also recommend that, in accordance with our general recommendations on finance,¹ all applications from colleges in the Bengal mufassal for hostel grants (except those for Dacca) should be submitted to the Government of Bengal through the Executive Council of the University of Calcutta. Such an arrangement will furnish the Government with a clear statement of the needs of the various colleges concerned and will enable a programme to be laid down and carried out by stages during a period of years.

26. When the intermediate colleges are established, there will be at once a need for a large provision of hostel accommodation in connexion with each intermediate college for students coming from a distance. We recommend that the duty of providing this residential accommodation should be assigned to the Board for Secondary and Intermediate Education.

27. As many of the intermediate colleges will be attached to high schools, the question will arise whether students attending the intermediate colleges should be allowed to live in hostels with boys attending the high school proper. We are of opinion that this

¹ Chapter XXXV. For an estimate of the immediate requirements for increased hostel accommodation for degree students in the mufassal, see, Financial Estimate for hostel accommodation in the volume of appendices to this report. The sum which will be immediately required for building new hostels and improving the existing hostels is about Rs. 3,80,000.

practice should, as a rule, be discouraged (separate hostels being provided for the high school and intermediate students) but that exceptions should be allowed in individual cases at the discretion of the authorities of the institution, or, where the intermediate college and the high school are wholly separate, by the authorities of both the institutions concerned. It should be added that we disapprove of university students living in the same hostel with younger students attending either an intermediate college or a high school.

IV.—Superintendence and internal organisation of hostels and attached messes in Calcutta and in the mufassal.¹

28. Every hostel and attached mess should have a common room pleasantly furnished and well-lighted. There should be a small library in each hostel, especially in those which are at some distance from college.

29. A well-lighted and well-ventilated sick room should be attached to every hostel. Each college should arrange for adequate medical attendance being available. For this advantage, students should pay a small monthly or annual fee. In the planning of these matters, the advice of the Board mentioned in paragraph 38 below would be useful to the college authorities.

30. In hostels societies can be more effectively organised than as a rule in colleges. The students, or the superintendent on their behalf, should be encouraged to arrange weekly or fortnightly lectures on topics of general interest. The hostels lend themselves excellently to social gatherings. The latter do more for corporate life when they are fairly frequent and inexpensively arranged than when they take the form of elaborate annual gatherings.

31. In every hostel that accommodates Muslim students, and in other cases where need arises, opportunity should be given for religious observance. A prayer room should always be provided where the number of Muslim students is considerable.

32. For the purchase of stores for use in hostels a few colleges in Bengal, and more in the United Provinces, have started co-operative societies. Under this system, which seems to be working satisfactorily, the best quality of goods can be obtained on the most

¹ A fuller discussion of some of these points by Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad will be found in the volume of appendices to this report.

economical terms. The management of a co-operative society gives an excellent training to students. The notes furnished by Mr. R. W. D. Willoughby¹ deal clearly with this question, and we recommend that the results of the various co-operative experiments should be circulated by the University to all colleges.

33. Under existing conditions most of the colleges in Calcutta find that they cannot cope with the task of supervising the residence of their students. If, however, the colleges are reconstructed in the manner suggested in this report they will find the duty less arduous than it is at present. We have recommended that 1,000 should be fixed as the maximum number of students to be admitted to any non-professional college in Calcutta which desires to enjoy the full privileges of a constituent college of the University ; in many of the colleges the number will be considerably below the maximum. In future the teaching staff of each college will be more numerous than it is at present and its members will have greater opportunities of seeing individual students because there should be a reduction in the number of lectures which the teachers will have to give. Moreover, the members of the college staff, holding their posts under conditions of longer tenure, should as a whole be better acquainted with the students and have more opportunity of becoming familiar with the conditions under which many of them reside. The colleges would also be freed from the embarrassment now caused by the frequent changes of lodging made by the students. Under the state of things which we propose, the attached or collegiate messes would be more permanent and the hostels would be more numerous, with the result that the college authorities would be dealing with much more stable conditions of residence. For the visitation of students living in collegiate messes each college should develop the system appropriate to its needs and resources. Some colleges may find it convenient to enlist the services of members of its governing bodies, as is now done at the Krishnagar College ; others may attach this duty to the functions of the tutors ; others may find it better to employ a special staff for the purpose. But, whatever else may be done, prompt and effective supervision of the arrangements made by students for their residence will prove almost impossible unless

¹ Question 19.

the university examination results can be published some weeks before the beginning of the college term.¹

34. The provision of satisfactory superintendence of the hostels and collegiate messes is indispensable. At present some of the hostels are too large to be managed properly by one man. Suitable quarters are rarely provided even for an unmarried superintendent ; for married superintendents, hardly ever. But we find that suitable arrangements have been made in the Scottish Churches College, in St. Paul's College and in one of the new hostels at Carmichael College, Rangpur, and we hope that similar arrangements may become general throughout the Presidency.

35. It is necessary that the superintendent of a hostel or a collegiate mess should be a college officer responsible to his college authorities and not to the University. When it is possible for the duties of superintendent to be combined with a teaching post, the arrangement is excellent ; and we think that in all cases the superintendent of a hostel should enjoy a status equivalent to that of a member of the teaching staff. The work of a large hostel is one of great importance and, if adequate salaries are offered, should appeal to many young graduates who would find the duties congenial. We suggest that on the technical side of a superintendent's work—the keeping of accounts, the organisation of his work, the conditions of health which should be observed and the encouragement of corporate life—a young man intending to seek such an appointment would derive much benefit from attending a course of special training in preparation for a superintendent's duties. We suggest that the University with the help of the Board of Students' Welfare should organise such training courses and that the colleges, when appointing a superintendent, should give preference to candidates who have taken such a course of training and are recommended by the director of the course.

V.—Health of students. Proposed University Board of Students' Welfare.

36. We now turn to another aspect of student life in regard to which a great improvement can be secured by better organisation

¹ Chapter XL, para. 33.

of the experience now at the command of the University and by systematic care. The general level of health among the students is shown by the evidence summarised in Chapter XIX to be very far from satisfactory. To this problem, which is closely connected with that of residence, the University should devote immediate and serious attention. The present organisation of the University does not lend itself to vigorous action in this matter. The Students' Residence Committee in Calcutta is too confined in its scope; the Syndicate, though it contains among its members several who have given much attention to student problems, is over-burdened with multifarious duties. On the other hand, there are resident in Calcutta many men who have great experience of the needs of student life and whose services have not yet been enlisted by any University committee. Among these are Messrs. Rames Chandra Ray, R. N. Chatterji and D. Ghosal, the results of whose investigations we have already discussed in Chapter XIX; Drs. J. Henry Gray and C. P. Segard of the Young Men's Christian Association who have worked loyally and effectively for improvement in the students' health; and the Rev. W. H. G. Holmes who has had fifteen years' experience of successful work in hostels. And there are many more who have patiently grappled with the intricacies of this serious problem.

37. We think it necessary that there should be a university organisation on which such men as these would have opportunities of framing effective plans for the improvement of the present conditions affecting the health and welfare of students. We recommend therefore the establishment by statute of a board which would deal with the physical development of students together with some of the questions (but not in such a way as to infringe the responsibilities of the college) affecting their residence and medical care. To this body, for which we propose the name of the Board of Students' Welfare, the work of the present Students' Residence Committee might be attached. The Board would need to form sub-committees dealing respectively with dietary, physical education, students' health and the equipment of gymnasia and playing fields. It should also deal with general questions affecting the conditions of students' residence with a view to supplying the college authorities both in Calcutta and in the mufassal with the best information and guidance on these subjects.

38. The Board (upon which there should be at least three representatives of the Hindu, and three of the Muslim, community) should include the following :—

- (a) *The Vice-Chancellor.*
- (b) *The Dean, or other representative of the Faculty of Medicine.*
- (c) *The Director of Physical Education.*
- (d) *A small number of principals or other representatives of colleges to be appointed by the Executive Commission and later by the Executive Council.*
- (e) *A small number of members (some being medical men) with special knowledge of collegiate and inter-collegiate hostels and with special interest in their work. In this category there should be representatives of the Oxford Mission and the Young Men's Christian Association.*
- (f) *The Medical Officer of Health for Calcutta.*
- (g) *The Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of Bengal.*
- (h) *The Chairman or other representative of the Calcutta Improvement Trust.*
- (i) *A limited number of additional members possessing special experience and co-opted by the Board.*

The Board would need the services of an executive officer. On the administrative and executive side of its work the Board would find that its main duties lay in Calcutta. But by the publication of pamphlets and circulars of advice, and by the assistance which it might give to the Board of Mufassal Colleges and the Executive Council of the University it would also be of considerable assistance to the mufassal colleges also.

39. In regard to the functions of the Board, we make the following proposals :—

- (a) *Health of students.*—The chief duty of the Board should be the organisation of a system by means of which every student of the University would receive experienced and practical advice as to the physical training and exercise which he should undertake for the good of his health. These arrangements should be placed in the charge of a Director of Physical Education, who should have the assistance of a skilled staff and himself rank in academic status with the professors of the University. The Director of Physical Education

or a member of his staff, should see every student on admission to the University, and should examine his physique, record his state of health and physical measurements and prescribe the course of physical training which he should follow. This examination should be repeated periodically by the Director and his staff, who would prescribe, when necessary, the special form of remedial exercise best adapted to the student's needs. Every student should receive systematic physical training and in most cases should also be advised to take part in organised games. A system of this kind has been adopted with success at several American universities. We think that it should be introduced into Calcutta University, but it would be for the Executive Council to decide whether the physical examination should at first be optional or be made obligatory for all students. It would be necessary that the University should provide a gymnasium with a staff of skilled instructors. The University gymnasium should be under the care of the Director of Physical Education. There should also, where possible, be a gymnasium in every college and hostel. Each mufassal college should have a gymnasium of its own and its own Director of Physical Education. If a student were found to need the attention of a medical man he would be referred to a doctor with a note from the Director of Physical Education, but it is desirable that students who are too poor to pay the ordinary medical fee should receive free medical treatment. The Board should investigate the causes of ill-health among students. It should prepare dietaries for the guidance of hostels, collegiate messes and individuals. In other ways it might render valuable assistance by issuing pamphlets of advice with regard to personal hygiene.

- (b) *Physical Instruction*.—The Director of Physical Education and his staff should hold training classes for physical instructors, and also for teachers who in the discharge of their ordinary duties on the staffs of colleges and schools would find it useful to have gone through a

course of training in drill and physical exercise. The training courses which the University should thus provide for the intending teachers should be of two kinds (a) a longer course of physical training for physical instructors and (b) a shorter course for ordinary teachers to be taken in conjunction with the general course of professional training. The Board would also be in a position to assist the colleges both in Calcutta and in the mufassal in the economical purchase of necessary equipment for physical training. At first it would be necessary for the Director of Physical Education and his trained instructing staff themselves to give some of the physical instruction in the colleges in Calcutta and to help in organising similar instruction in the mufassal.

- (c) *Organised games and recreation*.—The Board would be of help to the University in managing the university athletics in Calcutta. We suggest that there should be one or possibly two large athletic grounds and that in these grounds portions should be assigned to the several colleges. Some of the colleges would doubtless have their own athletic fields. The advice of the Board would enable economies to be made in the purchase of equipment for games, and in this respect the Board would be of great service to the mufassal colleges as well as to those in Calcutta. In Calcutta, where open space is limited, playgrounds on the lines of that of the Y. M. C. A. at Machua Bazar Street might be opened by the University for the students; and in the management of these playgrounds the help of the Board of Students' Welfare would be valuable. Smaller plots of ground near the college or the hostel should be used for games like basket-ball or volley-ball, and Indian games such as *Kabadi*. These are economical of space and time, inexpensive after the initial purchase of apparatus and afford admirable opportunities for recreation to a large number of students.

40. *Questions of Residence*.—The Board would assist the Executive Council in drafting general regulations as to the planning of collegiate hostels and attached messes. It would also provide the

agency by means of which the Executive Council of the University would be able to inspect all hostels and collegiate messes in Calcutta and ascertain that the colleges were observing the general regulations of the University in this respect. But beyond assuring itself that the regulations are observed the Board should not interfere with the autonomy of a constituent college in making arrangements for its hostels and attached messes and in maintaining discipline. In the case of a college failing to comply with the regulations of the University in regard to the residence of its students it would be the duty of the Board to report the delinquent college to the Executive Council which would have power to bring pressure on the college by a reduction or suspension of the residential grants made to it by the University, and in case of contumacy to restrict the further admission of students until the university regulations were complied with. Undue leniency in this matter would lead to a lowering of the right standard of university life and would injure the interests of the students concerned. The Board of Students' Welfare should also organise a course of training in the technical matters of hostel supervision, *e.g.*, hygiene, dietary and general organisation, and should award certificates to those candidates who passed the practical examination at the end of the course. We think that in such a training course the practical side should be emphasised, and that the students in training should reside for a time in a hostel or mess under the direction of an experienced superintendent.

41. Any funds placed at the disposal of the University by Government or by private benefactors for improvement in the conditions of student life should be spent in accordance with a systematic plan. We recommend that all applications for grants for the erection of hostels, for medical supervision, for the acquisition of playing fields or for the purchase of equipment for physical training should be submitted to Government by the University after consultation with the Board of Students' Welfare.

42. As these arrangements will guarantee the efficient and economic development of this branch of university work, we hope that Government aid and private benefactions will be forthcoming for the necessary improvement of the present conditions of student life. The interest which has been aroused by social service encourages the hope that societies following the lead of the Y. M. C. A. and other bodies will throw themselves energetically into this work. And we trust that wealthy men will subscribe liberally towards the

furtherance of these reforms which affect closely the future progress and educational welfare of Bengal.

43. Reports on colleges by the University should always deal with the conditions of residence, of physical education and sanitation and hygiene as well as with the intellectual side of college work. We suggest therefore that an expert member or representative of the Board of Students' Welfare should be included on each inspecting committee appointed by the University to report on the work of any college.

44. The publications of the Board of Students' Welfare should be communicated to all the colleges of the University both in Calcutta and in the mufassal. These publications should deal, among other things, with questions of hostel design adapted to conditions in the mufassal.

VI.—The development of corporate life.

45. One of the chief advantages of the college system lies in the opportunities which it offers for the growth of corporate life. This is one of the principal reasons which have led us to recommend changes which will develop and strengthen college loyalty in the Teaching University of Calcutta and to lay so much stress upon the residential organisation of the University of Dacca.¹

46. The important question of responsibility for students' discipline therefore needs consideration, especially in view of the intimate relationship between the University and its colleges in Calcutta which we propose.² We agree with the view expressed in the memorandum submitted by representatives of missionary institutions connected with the Church of England that the internal discipline of each college should be entirely in the hands of the several college authorities and that university arrangements should not be such as will interfere with the maintenance of the corporate life or discipline of the college.³ This general principle should cover the case of all colleges and halls of residence in the mufassal as well as that of colleges in Calcutta.

47. But the conditions of academic discipline in a city in which (as in Calcutta) the University stands in close relation

¹ Chapter XXXIV, paras. 24-28, and Chapter XXXIII, paras. 135-166.

² Chapter XXXIV.

³ General Memoranda, page 432.

to many colleges call for more precise definition, and we have therefore made the detailed recommendations which will be found in Chapter XXXIV, paragraphs 135-139. The only further matter which need be mentioned here is the importance of so arranging the university time-tables as not to interfere more than can possibly be helped with the daily assembly of students in each college or hall of residence.

48. The memorandum to which we referred in paragraph 46 above submits that in aided institutions complete freedom in all matters of moral and religious instruction should be left to the college authorities. We believe that the highest interests of education in Bengal have been promoted by the interpretation given by Government to the instructions of the despatch of 1854 that the system of grants-in-aid should be "based upon an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction" given in the institution assisted.¹ It does not fall within our province to refer to the aims which inspire the labours of religious communities and associations in their service of the people, but we should fail in our duty if we did not record the deep impression made upon us, during our visits to colleges and schools in all parts of Bengal, by the self-devotion of the men and women who in obedience to the call of their faith are bearing part in the higher education of the Presidency. Their insight and practical experience are of the utmost value to the whole educational system; their example, a source of much strength; their aspirations, an enrichment of its ideals. What they and their foregoers have accomplished in the field of education has been an inestimable boon to the country. We hope that in the new chapter now opening in the educational history of Bengal their influence will retain its strength and its opportunity of varied service. That service, to whatever faith it may be obedient, will command the respect and gratitude of the whole community, when directed by the spirit of the resolution adopted by the National Missionary Council held at Coonoor in November 1917 that "inasmuch as missionaries have always taught the duty of loyalty to conscience, they rejoice at every manifestation of such loyalty and desire to show the utmost regard for the conscientious conviction of others."

49. If each is to build up a strong corporate life, the colleges must be, from the structural point of view, very different institutions

¹ Despatch on the education of the people of India, No. 49, July 19, 1854, para. 53.

from what in many cases they now are. At present many of the college buildings are not merely inadequate but unsuitable. The Presidency College, Madras, is perhaps the best constructed college building which we have seen in India. Besides the lecture halls, libraries and laboratories, there are private rooms for professors and pupil-rooms, supplied with the necessary books, for the students. This measure of accommodation seems to us indispensable to the proper provision of tutorial guidance. A tutor must have a place where he can keep his books and papers and conveniently meet his pupils; the students must have ample accommodation in the college where they can study under the guidance and supervision of their tutors. Unless such provision is made, any attempt to reduce the number of compulsory lectures—a reform which appears to us essential—must result in idling and ineffective work.

50. The majority of the present college buildings in Bengal do not readily lend themselves to reconstruction on the lines which we recommend, but in most cases a few additional rooms could be provided without serious difficulty. We recommend that all new colleges should be so constructed as to provide the facilities named above. Anything that will relieve the less favourable surroundings in which teachers and students work will stimulate the incentive to real study.

51. The provision of suitable residences for some at any rate of the members of the college staff is desirable with a view to strengthening college loyalty and corporate life. Mr. C. Macnaghtan, who wrote with the authority of long and successful experience of Indian college life, laid stress in 1882 upon—

“the great importance of the heads and professors of schools and colleges living and moving among their pupils out of, as well as during, school hours, and so being in a position to exercise those most essential qualifications, a healthy influence over the boys and the power to mould their character.”

The Universities Commission of 1902 advised that “where space admits, it is very desirable that the principal and some of the professors should reside in, or quite near, the college.” The Dacca University Committee went even further. They wrote:—

“In order that a university may become a residential institution, teachers as well as students must live within it and find there the interest and occupation of their days. At present some professors after they leave their lecture-rooms take little interest in their colleges and pay little attention to their students. The system—the lack of all that makes for an inspiring corporate life—not the teachers, is to blame for this state of affairs. We propose that

a large proportion of the teachers should live within the precincts of the new university ; that every encouragement should be given to them to associate with one another and to take a common interest in university affairs ; and that their duties should extend to all aspects of student life."

Our visits to colleges have shown us not only the weakening of the corporate spirit through the absence of suitable residences for the staff, but also the strengthening of that spirit in places where such residences are available. We therefore recommend that, wherever possible, such residences should be acquired for at least some members of the staff.

52. The staff's continuity of service is also a matter of importance. The Mission colleges have profited by the fact that each of them usually commands the allegiance of men who have given themselves up for long periods of time to the service of their colleges. In other colleges, unfortunately, the case is usually different. Government colleges have suffered by the transference of members of their staff from one institution to another, while the private colleges have as a rule been unable to afford such salaries or to offer such conditions of service as would enable them long to retain the members of their staffs. But incessant changes in the staff are even more harmful to the interests of the college than is a constant migration of students. We have therefore recommended that all colleges should have a minimum scale of salaries for full time teachers, and that all teachers after definite appointment should hold their positions under a written contract which should normally ensure to them tenure for a period of not less than three full years. For the same reasons, a pension or provident fund scheme for university teachers is to be desired ; it should be organised upon a provincial basis by co-operation among the collegiate institutions concerned and with the help of Government.¹ The advantages of this plan would be greatly enhanced if the pension and provident fund in the several provinces were so organised as to allow a university teacher, on moving from one province to another, to transfer without difficulty the sums accumulated to his credit and to continue uninterruptedly his annual contributions.

53. The growth of a strong corporate life through friendly and informal intercourse between teachers and students, each

¹ See Chapter XXXI, paras. 93-94 (for intermediate colleges), Chapter XXXIII, para. 57 (Dacca).

equally loyal to the good name of the college, will do much to banish the present dreary monotony of students' lives. An increase in the proportion of teachers to students would give the teachers opportunities of entering more intimately into the lives of the students than has hitherto been possible.

54. We recommend that every facility be given to the continuance of the University Corps which has already done much for the discipline and physical well-being of its members as well as for the promotion of a common loyalty to the good name of the University.

55. A strong corporate life in each college should yet leave room for loyalty to the University as a whole. Such a loyalty will, we believe, quickly grow in the new University of Dacca. It is much to be desired that it should show itself also in the University of Calcutta, to which some of her most distinguished sons have shown, and continue to show, devotion. But it must be acknowledged that in the past there has been too little sense of personal obligation to the University.

VII.—Other factors in the problem.

56. In conclusion, we must refer to certain conditions of livelihood and of social outlook which affect the circumstances of student life in Bengal and must be kept in mind in the consideration of any plans for the improvement of the present unhappy state of affairs.

57. Most conspicuous among the social conditions which affect this side of university organisation is the widespread poverty among educated families in Bengal. Many of our witnesses describe this poverty in depressing but not exaggerated terms. This poverty, while it continues, will forbid a material increase in the general rate of school or college fees. The industrial and commercial development of the Presidency, by enhancing the wealth of the whole population, can alone provide the resources which will be needed for the provision of educational facilities and advantages adequate to the aspirations of the people.

58. Though the University cannot itself ensure such a growth of industry and commerce, it can prepare the way for it by making changes in its courses which will qualify the sons of the educated classes to take advantage of opportunities of employment in trade and manufacture. For such a change in many of the university courses public opinion seems to be ripe, but the results cannot be

other than gradual and slow. The Rev. Garfield Williams¹ refers to the depth of the gulf which separates most of the educated classes in India from industrial and commercial avocations, though his remarks do not apply to the Parsi community or to the Marwari or to the Armenian. But the University, though it cannot by itself prevail over this time-honoured predilection for professional and clerical callings, can play an important part at this period of crisis in encouraging the educated classes to take a wider view of the opportunities which lie before the younger generation. It can insist less exclusively upon bookish courses of training and, by the implications of the teaching which it authorises, place before its students ideals other than those which now too exclusively prevail.

59. The narrow choice of careers open to Indian students is a second cause of anxiety and tension. A young Indian of good education has before him fewer alternatives of congenial occupation than are enjoyed by his contemporary in the West. The number of openings for highly qualified medical men in the country districts are far fewer than in the West.² The religious organisations of the Indian community do not offer to university graduates as great opportunities of work and influence as fall to a clergyman in England or to a minister in Scotland. Furthermore, until quite recently, a Bengali student could not look for commissioned rank in the army. Under the conditions of Indian administration, recruitment is made in London to some of the highest grades in the medical and educational professions, to important service posts in engineering, and to the Indian Civil Service. Nor is the teaching profession at present sufficiently attractive. In secondary as well as in elementary schools the work of a teacher is inadequately paid.

60. The lessening of these limitations does not lie in the power of the University and is beyond the scope of educational reform. But the University has great influence upon public opinion in the Presidency and, through the action of some of its leaders, might perhaps stimulate new forms of demand for the services of its graduates. For example, it is possible that in some country districts arrangements might be made for the employment of a graduate doctor upon a co-operative plan, his remuneration being provided

¹ Question 2.

² Chapter XLIV, Section VI.

by a subscription paid by each of the members. There are signs of an increasing desire on the part of many students for social service, and the influence of the University might be employed in urging co-operative societies and landowners to establish posts which could be held by graduates trained for the work of giving advice on methods of cultivation or on sanitation and domestic hygiene. Similarly, an organised appeal might perhaps induce some landed proprietors to establish on their estates a few well equipped primary schools and then to provide teachers' salaries on a scale which would make it possible for young graduates, trained in the art of teaching, to accept service on the staff and to show what a good elementary school could do for a village in Bengal. The influence of the University might also be used with good effect in inducing the governing bodies of high schools to appoint to their staffs, in larger numbers and at a more adequate salary, graduates who have received professional training for a teacher's work.¹

61. All such endeavours to open new careers or to improve the conditions of careers which now exist would necessarily lead at first to small results, but a persistent propaganda, with constructive ideas in it would bear fruit and might in the end achieve remarkable success. As another step it may be suggested that the University should establish a well-organised and active Appointments Bureau. Under capable and vigorous direction the Bureau would not only furnish the students with knowledge of the occupations in which they might find an opening and of the qualifications required, but would also, when it had won the confidence of the business firms, bring capable candidates under the notice of employers seeking well-educated recruits for their staff.

62. The third chief cause of the unrest in the student community is the fermentation of new political and social ideals. In this matter the University can render inestimable service to the younger generation and to the whole community in Bengal by encouraging in every possible way methods of teaching and of tutorial guidance which will train the students to examine difficult issues of politics and economics with just discrimination, will accustom them to thoroughness of critical investigation, will give them a distaste for shallow rhetoric and will furnish them with the materials for a sober and independent judgment.

¹ See Chapter XXXI, for proposals for reform in secondary education.

63. In a speech made during the discussion on the Universities Bill in 1904, the late Mr. Gokhale urged the need for patience and hopefulness with regard to the present stage which higher education has reached in India :—

“ Let not Government imagine that, unless the education imparted by colleges is the highest which is at the present day possible, it is likely to prove useless and even pernicious ; and secondly, let not the achievements of our graduates in the intellectual field be accepted as the sole, or even the most important, test to determine the utility of this education. I think, and this is a matter of deep conviction with me, that in the present circumstances of India, *all* western education is valuable and useful. If it is the highest that under the circumstances is possible, so much the better. But even if it is not the highest, it must not on that account be rejected. I believe the life of a people—whether in the political or industrial or intellectual field—is an organic whole, and no striking progress in any particular field is to be looked for unless there be room for the free movement of the energies of the people in *all* fields. To my mind the greatest work of western education in the present state of India is not so much the encouragement of learning as the liberation of the Indian mind from the thralldom of old world ideas, and the assimilation of all that is highest and best in the life and thought and character of the West. For this purpose not only the highest but *all* western education is useful. I think Englishmen should have more faith in the influence of their history and literature. And whenever they are inclined to feel annoyed at the utterances of a discontented B.A., let them realise that he is but an incident of the present period of transition in India, and that they should no more lose faith in the results of western education on his account than should my countrymen question the ultimate aim of British rule in this land, because not every Englishman who comes out to India realises the true character of England's mission here.”

64. Education is always a force but not always a remedy. In one part of the same field it may build up a structure of new ideas so firmly as to determine conduct definitely in a new direction ; in another, it may simply disintegrate older beliefs, and the customs of which those beliefs are the cement, without replacing them with an effective substitute. It is impossible to forbid the entrance of the new ideas for which organised education is but one of the channels. At every period of crisis in human thought, at every turning point in the relationship between class and class or race and race, we can do no more than make such dispositions as will, so far as possible, concentrate the force of the new ideas at the points at which erosion is most quickly followed by fresh and stable growth. But the success of any system of education chiefly depends upon the conditions which are themselves remote from education. These the educational reformer cannot control. He has

to rely on the co-operation of other agencies, which in turn require his help.

65. The bright and darker sides of student life have been described in earlier chapters of this report.¹ We have laid stress upon the gifts of mind and disposition with which the students are endowed—their quick intelligence, their sensitive nature, their diligence, their capacity for affection, their attachment to family and home. These are the characteristics which have enabled the schools and colleges to achieve a work of historic significance in the evolution of Indian culture and have allowed some stages in the perilous transition from an old order of ideas to a new order, itself still largely indeterminate, to be accomplished without grave disaster. Modern education in Bengal has justified itself not only in the talent and scholarship of the eminent men whom the province has produced and in the efficiency and uprightness of the public services, but in an even more impressive way in the trustworthiness, devotion to duty and self-respect which are the honourable characteristics of the educated community and disclose themselves unobtrusively in thousands of quiet lives. The life of the student body, viewed in its broad aspects, is sound and healthy and is supported by much steadiness of individual character, by high standards of conduct, and by the influence of good homes.

66. On the other hand, the conditions under which in many cases it is given impair its influence and weaken its power for good. The neglect (often through ignorance) of personal health, the disregard of physical exercise, the prevalence of malaria and inadequate medical care conduce to frequent illness and in some cases have led to serious breakdown; a too limited horizon of thought and interest, monotony of life, and the lack of a well-regulated system of tutorial guidance have in many cases stunted intellectual growth. In some instances, the weakening of moral control through the decay of good traditions, through the absence of ethical or religious training, and through the want of corporate life in the University and the colleges has led to serious outbursts of indiscipline and even to violent crime. Some of these hurtful conditions are so widespread that systematic effort, patiently maintained over a number of years, can alone rectify them. We

regard the need for improvement in the present conditions of student life in Bengal, both in Calcutta and in the mufassal, as very urgent. It is not less urgent than the need for reform in method of intellectual training. But the two needs are closely connected. For this reason we recommend in this report changes in the conditions both of teaching and of residence, a reconstruction of the University and enlargement of its responsibilities, and the strengthening and development of college life.

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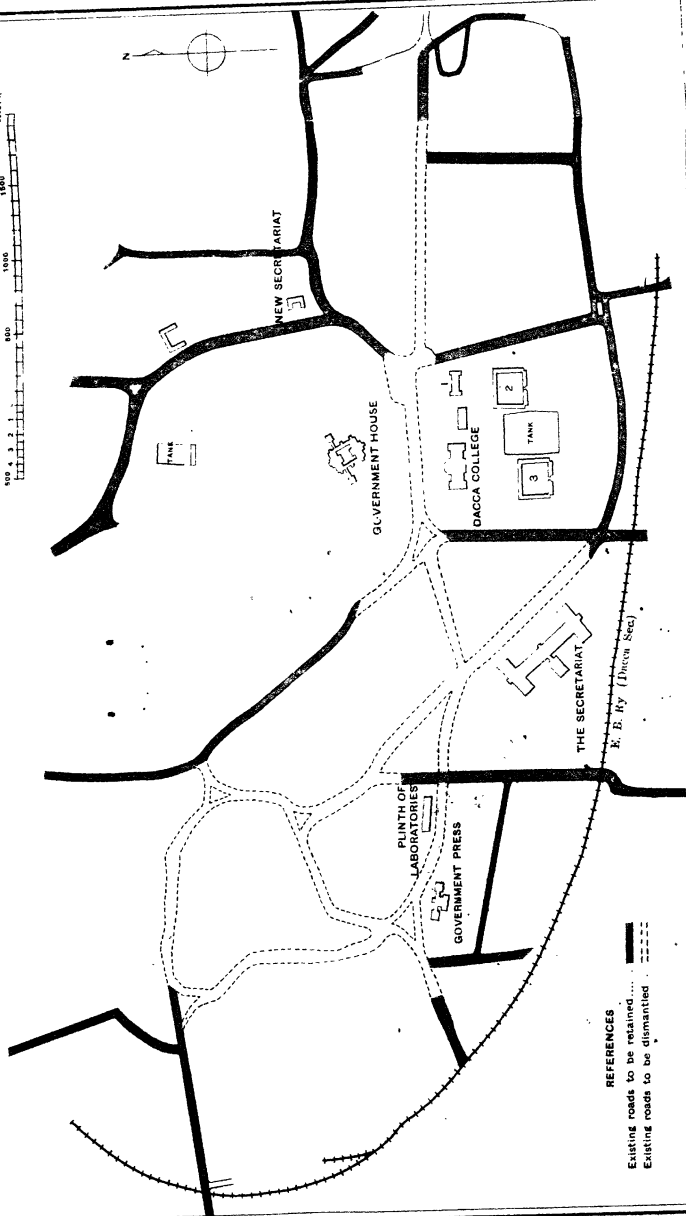
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1. Engineering School.
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